

# THE READER

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 88, Vol. IV.

Saturday, September 3, 1864.

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## THE READER.

SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1864.

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### THE BRITISH SOLDIER IN INDIA.

THE climate of India, in its effect upon the European constitution, is one of those questions that become more difficult to determine the more we know about them. So long as we were content to think that the country was dreadfully hot, made people yellow as to complexion, peppery as to temper, and lax as to morals, we had no anxiety in the matter. We accepted the conditions, and always understood that everybody who went out staked their lives against a large fortune; if they won they came back again, and if they lost they naturally stayed where they were. Some, to be sure, stayed where they were by choice; and these were the men who always stood by India as "The finest climate in the world, Sir." But, as we never saw the fortunate persons in question, they made no impression in Europe, and the few who cared to write their views found still fewer to believe them. Of late years, however—since the Cape route has been shortened by fast steamers, and the fast steamers themselves beaten by transit overland—since communication has been swift and frequent, and not only have Anglo-Indians gone backwards and forwards, but Englishmen in large numbers have determined to see India for themselves—since these changes have been in operation we have known a great deal more about the country than we ever knew before; and foremost in the assaults upon our ignorance has been our old friend the climate.

In the old days we saw very little of Indian invalids, except such as were invalids beyond the possibility of mistake. When the journey home and the journey out again occupied nearly a year, it was not a trivial ailment that sent a man to this country. In the case of those who "came for their health," therefore, we were accustomed to consider nanken-coloured countenances as inevitable, and livers as by no means matters of course. But, under the new state of things, the Indian invalid is as often as not a rosy, happy-looking fellow, in an insulting state of animal spirits,

with no care except to spend as much as possible of his handsome allowance, and make the most of his time as a man about Europe. He gives you such accounts, too, of the hilarity of Indian society, of tiger and wild-boar hunting, of racing, coursing, cricketing, rackets, and what not—to say nothing of the milder amusements of picnicing, dancing, and burra-khana-ing—that it seems impossible to suppose that a man can go through so much in a country that is unhealthy. The consequence is that at the present moment a decided opinion prevails among a large number of persons at home that the objections to the climate are all a delusion, while an equally large number perhaps, who have lost friends in the country, or who have had unpleasant experience of it themselves, still hold it in horror. The remainder, who are the largest number of all, are fairly perplexed, and have given up the idea of forming an opinion. They see, on the one hand, the rosy invalids, and hear their accounts of "that glorious season at Simla," and the "awful fun we had when our regiment was stationed at Meerut;" but, on the other hand, they see some of the most illustrious servants of the State come home to die—prematurely worn out; they hear of men of equal rank and fame who die before they can reach their native land, and even of ladies, whose fall cannot be attributed to work or exposure, meeting with the same ill fate. Those who have had the best opportunities of judging come to this conclusion—which we believe to be the nearest approach to fact. The ability to bear the climate of India depends, in the first place, upon individual constitution, and, secondly, upon individual mode of life when in the country. To many Europeans the Indian climate is certain death; to many others it is more suitable even than the general climate of Europe; in average cases it will be found that the mode of life is the important consideration. The Irish gentleman thought he had mastered the question when he said of the Anglo-Indians, "They ate and they drink, and they drink and they ate, and then they die—and then they go home and say that the climate killed them." Apart from the little difficulty involved in the latter statement, the Irish gentleman is not far wrong. There used to be a great deal too much conviviality in India; and in proof that the more temperate habits of the present day are favourable to life, is the undoubted fact that the average mortality of Anglo-Indians is far less than it used to be. Moderation, indeed, is the great secret of living in India—moderate conviviality, moderate exercise, moderate work, moderate rest, moderate relaxation—all scrupulously carried out in a manner that would delight old Montaigne. The Report of the Sanitary Commission appointed in 1859 to inquire into the question, and of whose labours the result has just been issued, is far from unfavourable to the different climates of India; and we have it on the authority of such men as Sir John Lawrence and Sir Charles Trevelyan, among a number of others, including eminent medical officers, that the disproportion between the mortality of England and India, when unaffected by exceptional conditions, is by no means so great as is generally supposed.

But our main object in making these remarks was not so much in reference to the classes that can take care of themselves as the class which not only cannot take care of itself, but has, in another sense, to take care of other people. The great victim of the Indian climate has always been the British soldier. The mortality in the army at home is calculated at 17 per 1000 annually; in India, for many years, the average is said to have been 69 per 1000. Against this rate in barracks we have only 38 per 1000 in the bungalows of the officers. As regards their wives, those of soldiers in barracks die at the rate of 35 per 1000—those of officers in bungalows at the rate of only 14 per 1000. Without entering into the question why the number of females

is so much less than that of males, we may safely assume, as regards the comparison between the higher and the lower class, that the disproportion is to be ascribed to the difference of accommodation, habits, and mode of life; and towards improvements in these respects it is pleasant to find that the efforts of the Indian authorities have for some time been directed. Indeed we are informed that, through the measures adopted, the frightfully high rate of mortality quoted above has of late been materially decreased. Sir Hugh Rose, whatever his quarrels with officers and with society, has never failed to deserve his character of the "Soldiers' Friend." Under his auspices the barracks have everywhere been improved, and provided with comforts conducive to health; the rations have been varied, different kinds of cookery introduced, and the exercise of taste in choosing his dinner for the first time left to the soldier. The latter reform was intended to lessen the inducement to drink caused by monotonous and indigestible meals; and it appears to have had the compensating effect, for, under the new system, the soldier in India goes cheerfully with half his former allowance of grog—the restriction of which would, in the good old times, have been sufficient to cause, a mutiny. But Sir Hugh Rose has not stopped here. A Parliamentary Return, moved for by Sir Harry Verney, and just issued to the public, contains a "Copy of the Statement of the Commander-in-Chief, published at Headquarters, Simla, on the 6th day of April, 1864, of the Results of the System of Regimental Workshops, established by G. O. C. C., dated the 10th day of September, 1861." The statement is a brief one, but full of important matter.

The system, Sir Hugh Rose tells us, has been established in five regiments of cavalry and thirty-two battalions of infantry; and so well has it been developed by the exertions of commanding and subordinate officers, aided by the good-will of the men, that, according to the latest returns received—for the half-year ending June 30th, 1863—the collective accounts stood as follows, the rupees being calculated in pounds for the convenience of the home reader, and the shillings and pence dropped for the convenience of ourselves:—Balance on the credit side on the 31st September, 1862, £320; amount realized for work done during the current half year, £5542; value of stock, &c., on hand 30th June, 1863, £1721; balance on the debtor side, nil; total, £7584. But, however favourable this statement (given in detail in the Return) may be, Sir Hugh Rose assures us that it does not adequately represent the success of the workshops, because many regiments have not been able to give a full development to the system, on account of want of barrack-accommodation in some cases, and the movements of the corps in others. Many improvements have also been made of which no returns have been provided. A number of regiments have gardens attached to them, as have also several of the military hospitals. These the men take pleasure in cultivating; and many of them are kept with great neatness and taste, Government prizes being awarded for the most deserving. Sir Hugh requests commanding officers to extend the garden system as far as possible in connexion with their several barracks.

His Excellency observes that he has seen at his inspections that the industrial system for soldiers' children has been carried out with very good effect in several regiments, and that the girls have not only learned to make their own clothes and sew neatly, but have also acquired a useful and practical education, under the superintendence, in many cases, of excellent schoolmistresses. Generally speaking, throughout the army in Bengal he notices that the system of manly exercises and out-of-door recreation has kept pace with the useful industrial occupation of the men. In many regiments there is a cricket-club in each company, besides quoits, bowls, &c. There is not a regiment that has



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not its reading and refreshment room, well furnished and fitted up. These are, in the evenings, crowded with men who can there obtain various solid and liquid refreshments, spirits being excluded. Sir Hugh also notices with much satisfaction the increasing popularity and success of regimental libraries, as shown by the number of subscribers. In this, as in his other remarks, he refers directly to the Presidency of Bengal; but he tells us that great progress has been made in the same direction in the other presidencies. In conclusion, he says: "To this system of useful employment and recreation may, in a great measure, be attributed a considerable decrease in the consumption of ardent spirits in the army, than which nothing can be more gratifying."

These are wise measures, and calculated more than any means that could have been adopted to save the soldier from the worst evils of the Indian climate. India is not a country for any hard or engrossing work; but there is no greater trial for its dwellers than having nothing to do. In the case of a soldier who is necessarily kept in barracks during the heat of the day, with few if any mental resources, the trial is more severe than to other classes. If no means are taken to occupy or amuse him, the long hours between his light duties will be passed lying on his bed, a pipe in his mouth, and nothing to look forward to except his meals and his dram. When at liberty for a few hours he will, in nine cases out of ten, go to the bazaar and there drink a native spirit of a horrible character, which he can procure for next to nothing. Maddened by this he is ready for any excess that may offer, and towards which there are sure to be temptations at hand. It is obvious that, to prevent the inevitable reaction from *ennui*, the prevention of the *ennui* itself is the only sure means. With such physical and mental resources as are now being prepared for him—to say nothing of private theatricals and balls which, in the present day, enter into most regimental arrangements—he may hope to withstand dangerous allurements, and live as long in India as his countrymen of any other class. In the Madras Presidency we observe, from some recent accounts in an Indian newspaper, that workshops for soldiers' wives are being tried, though only to a limited extent. The movement appears a very good addition to the one under discussion, as giving employment to such persons would permit the reception of a great many more upon "the strength of the regiment." As it is, if a soldier marries without his commanding officer's consent—a certain number of wives only being allowed per company—the unfortunate object of his choice gets no recognition, and therefore no rations, and of course quarters are out of the question.

## CURRENT LITERATURE.

### PRAED'S POEMS.

*The Poems of Winthrop Mackworth Praed: with a Memoir by the Rev. Derwent Coleridge. In Two Volumes. (Moxon & Co.)*

THIRTY full years have passed away since the inexhaustible fancy of Praed ceased to delight the readers of periodical literature. What difficulties, or what diffidence, may have delayed so long the publication of these poems we shall not stop to inquire. It is at least satisfactory to find that neither manuscripts nor clues to authorship have perished in the interval.

Praed was born in the second year of the century, was educated at Eton and Trinity, Cambridge, practised as a barrister between the years 1829 and 1834, was distinguished as a promising young member in the parliament of 1831, and took an active part in the struggles of the Reform Bill. He was again a member of the House of Commons in 1835, and held a minor office in Sir Robert Peel's short administration of that year. He died in the year 1839; but his literary career, with which we have now to do, ended, so far as

the public was concerned, at least six years earlier. Thenceforward he was occupied exclusively in political pursuits, and the only verses he published were a series of political squibs, which have been often quoted, but never as yet reprinted. Nor does it appear that much has remained unpublished which belongs to this period of his life. A man of keen ambition, reckoning poetical fame, so far as it was within his reach, far below the honour of political distinction, and despising the unsound credit of successful speechmaking, he set himself resolutely to acquire the knowledge necessary to the statesman, overtaken in the effort a frame hardly equal to the emergencies of daily life, and died at the age of thirty-seven—too soon for the fame he principally coveted, but not, as we believe, for that to which his early years seemed to point—the praise due to a refined humourist and a successful poet. The vitality of his reputation has proved itself more persistent than that which clings to a mere wit or a skilful poetaster. But the disastrous custom of magazine-writing, which has loaded the pages of more than one great writer with much that we could willingly forget, has perhaps been even harder upon Praed than any other of its victims. Skilful editing and a most interesting biography have at last rescued the name of Hood from an unmerited disregard. Campbell was fortunate in the opportunity of selecting his own poetical works from among the budgets of his monthly editorship. Mrs. Hemans has long been buried under the multitude of her soft-flowing rhymes. But the fame of Praed, who rivalled Hood in wit and Campbell in melody, who was once thought as readable as Macaulay and as tuneful as Moore, has paid the penalties of desultory publication by depending for thrice the Horatian period of reserve upon the memories of correspondents to *Notes and Queries* and the guesses of American editors.

A little volume published several years ago by Redfield of New York, and edited by a true lover of poetry, Dr. Griswold, is a fairer representation of Praed's poems, though of course only as a selection, than the later and more bulky American edition. The additions of the later editor were singularly unfortunate. The pieces of a clever imitator of Praed's style, who used apparently to sign by the same or a very similar mark with Praed, but sometimes by his full name, Fitzgerald, generally rejected by Dr. Griswold's taste, have been inserted wholesale by his successor. Some mystification seems to have been practised in the authorship of the poems sent by the two friends to different magazines, as will easily be seen by any one who takes the trouble, as we have done, to turn over a few volumes of the *New Monthly Magazine* between the years 1825 and 1830, and compare some of the poems, also signed with their initial \*, which continued to appear after Praed had ceased to contribute, and even after his decease. But the perusal of Fitzgerald's verses can only be recommended to those who desire to appreciate the beauties of Praed's style by comparing it with one that reproduced all its copiousness without any of its refinement.

The present edition, besides rejecting a good deal that has hitherto passed under Praed's name, contains much that probably the lapse of years alone has allowed to see the light. A strong domestic affection is the characteristic of these pieces. They tell us more about their author than is in the power of a biographer. They seem to show that a superficial description of manners, however excellent, was not the only, or hardly even the most natural, channel for the copious torrent of his melodious rhyme. The legends and tales of the American edition, to which a few additions are here made, in some measure point us to the same conclusion.

Praed was a remarkable instance of precocious ability. The earliest verses here printed date when he was in his fourteenth year. Although they are only remarkable as a careful and clever exercise, yet, in many

juvenile pieces which follow, there is a considerable degree of merit. Simplicity of expression and perfection of form is all that can be advantageously looked for in the productions of a child; and of them there is no lack. These compositions are an instance, if such were wanted, of the way in which a judicious teacher may train a pupil in the writing of his native tongue. The effect of a wholesome poetical training and of a sound discipline in composition may be traced in all the multitude of verses which Praed afterwards produced with so much facility. In them we are not offended by halting metres or discordant rhymes; and, what is more, there is not a sentence which is not composed in sound intelligible English. If the instructors of our youthful generation of poets, from the awarders of chancellors' medals upwards, would "require plain sense plainly spoken, and tolerate no extravagances," we might be spared the task of construing as well as reading many pretty lines and graceful thoughts now spoilt by slovenly involution. On this head the occasional obscurities of Mr. Tennyson's style have much to answer for. But we have little hope that Praed's example will succeed where that of Wordsworth has failed.

He was a boy of an extraordinary command of verse, of the most acute observation, of considerable humour, trained to careful and accurate composition, and endowed with one of those rare feminine souls which never fail to impress and be impressed by every strong or fine mind with which they come in contact. Such belong to the men who are defended, admired, and gloried in by their friends—who seem to depend for their warmth upon the vivid sympathy of others, while they furnish themselves the light of the surrounding circle. Without this he would have been a formidable satirist; indeed his powers that way were occasionally tested, though rarely exercised in earnest. With it, he was the central figure of a group of friends—comprising stronger characters, perhaps, and men of greater genius than himself. In society he was sometimes thought reserved, even distant in manner; but, with a pen in his hand, whether writing for a familiar eye or for the world, he not merely wrote according to his inmost thoughts, fancies, or emotions; he wrote them out. He seems to have revelled in the expression of all those finer feelings which an Englishman is but too apt to suppress. No creature has a stronger home-affection than the English school-boy; but there are few who would not rather write Greek Iambics than the lines in which Praed lavishes his fraternal affection. The love-poetry of the present day, like that of the Elizabethan era, seems to prefer to occupy itself with circumstance, or with description; Praed's love-poems are purely psychological and reflective. Coventry Patmore has written a volume upon the history of a successful love; Praed tells us more of his ideal self in a page than the modern poet in a hundred. Take, for instance, these remarkable lines:—

Still is the earth, and still the sky;  
The midnight moon is fleeting by;  
And all the world is wrapt in sleep  
But the hearts that love and the eyes that weep.  
And now is the time to kiss the flowers  
That shun the sunbeam's busy hours;  
For the book is shut, and the mind is free  
To gaze on them, and to think of thee.  
Withered they are and pale in sooth;  
So are the radiant hopes of youth;  
But love can give with a single breath  
Bloom to languor and life to death.  
Though I must greet thee with a tone  
As calm to-morrow as thine own,  
Oh! Fancy's vision, Passion's vow,  
May be told in stillness and darkness now.  
For the veil from the soul is rent away  
Which it wore in the glare of gaudy day;  
And more, much more, the heart may feel  
Than the pen may write or the lip reveal.  
Why can I not forego, forget  
That ever I loved thee, that ever we met?  
There is not a single link or sign  
To blend thy lot in the world with mine.



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I know not the scenes where thou hast roved,  
I see not the faces which thou hast loved—  
Thou art to me as a pleasant dream  
Of a boat that sails on a distant stream.  
Thou smilest! I am glad the while,  
But I share not the joy that bids thee smile;  
Thou grieve'st! when thy grief is deepest  
I weep, but I know not for whom thou weepest.  
I would change life's spring for his roughest  
weather

If we might bear the storm together;  
And give my hopes for half thy fears,  
And sell my smiles for half thy tears.

Give me one common bliss or woe,  
One common friend, one common foe,  
On the earth below or the clouds above,  
One thing we both may loathe, or love.

It may not be; but yet, but yet,  
Oh deem not I can e'er forget!  
For fondness such as mine supplies  
The sympathy which Fate denies.

And all my feelings, well thou knowest,  
Go with thee, Lady, where'er thou goest;  
And my wayward spirit bows to thee,  
Its first and last idolatry.

Or take a little rhyme written at the age of  
fifteen; it has much of the simplicity of the  
old dramatists:—

When faithful friends are parting,  
Oh then their hearts are smarting;  
But, when they're just returning,  
Oh then their hearts are burning!  
They're merry all,  
Nor once recall  
The tear they shed at parting.

Or, again, the last lines of his pen, written,  
as it were, by a hand trembling with fatal  
sickness:—

Dearest, I did not dream four years ago,  
When through your veil I saw your bright  
tear shine,  
Caught your clear whisper, exquisitely low,  
And felt your soft hand tremble into mine,

That, in so brief, so very brief a space,  
He who in love both clouds and cheers our life  
Would lay on you, so full of light, joy, grace,  
The darker, sadder duties of a wife,—

Doubts, fears, and frequent toil and constant  
care

For this poor frame, by sickness sore bested;  
The daily tendance on the fractious chair,  
The nightly vigil by the feverish bed.

Yet not unwelcome doth this morn arise,  
Though with more gladsome beams it might  
have shone;

Strength of these weak hands, light of these  
dim eyes,

In sickness, as in health, bless you, My  
Own!

There is no fear but that the tales which  
commence this series will be sufficiently  
popular. Although the writer seems to have  
been careless in the extreme of the fate of  
his minor pieces, yet it appears that some of  
these, his most elaborate productions, received  
considerable corrections and additions from  
his hand, long after he had ceased to publish  
poetry in any form. Those who are familiar  
with the "Bridal of Belmont" or the  
"Haunted Tree" will not quarrel with the  
interpolated passages. The stories are im-  
proved by a better development of plot; the  
versification is here and there amended; and  
some passages of rare beauty are inserted.  
In particular, the nymph of the Lurley gains  
much from the beautiful and curious lines in  
which her mundane education and its effects  
are described. With these additions, we  
think the "Bridal of Belmont" our author's  
most successful creation. But in them the  
undertones of melancholy, which are never,  
even in his lightest moods, entirely silent,  
become louder and more continuous. What a  
pathetic sadness is there not in these lines?—

No cheerful friend, no quiet guest,  
Doth Wisdom come to human breast;  
She brings the day-beam, but in sooth  
She brings its trouble with its truth.  
With every cloud that flits and flies  
Some dear delusion fades and dies;  
With every flash of perfect light  
Some loveless prospect blasts the sight.  
Shut up the page; for in its lore  
Are fears and doubts unfelt before:  
Fling down the wreath; for Sorrow weaves  
Amid the laurel cypress-leaves.

Sometimes, however, there is a brighter,  
though still serious thought—as this in the  
"Legend of the Drachenfels":—

The temper of our stoutest mail  
In battle's fiery shock may fail;  
The trustiest anchor may betray  
Our vessel in the treacherous spray;  
The dearest friend we ever knew  
In our worst need may prove untrue;  
But, come what may of doubt or dread  
About our lonely path or bed,  
On tented field or stormy wave,  
In dungeon cell or mountain cave,  
In want, in pain, in death,—where'er  
One meek heart prays, God's love is there.

But what fertility of expression, what a rapid  
and masterly touch of all the keys of emo-  
tion, from the most sparkling fun to the  
most genuine pathos, is displayed in these  
delicious fairy-tales! In truth, it is this  
sudden change of mood, perilous in the ex-  
treme to an artificial writer (who can read  
the serious turns in the "Ingoldsby Legends"  
without disgust?), which strikes us most for-  
cibly among the characteristics of Praed's  
style. It is, no doubt, a sign of weakness—  
that is to say, of incapacity for sustained  
flight. He knew the limits of his own power,  
and never attempted to soar too long or too  
high. It was always possible for him to con-  
ceal an inevitable bathos with the flashes of  
his wit; and the consciousness of this power  
gave him, perhaps, a surer step and a  
steadier nerve while treading those difficult  
paths of imagination and emotion in which  
many a skilful verse-writer has lost his foot-  
ing and grovelled on the earth. Praed's  
nearest approaches to the sublime are to be  
looked for in the grim grotesque of the "Red  
Fisherman"—a passage, for instance, which  
no one who has read will ever forget, describ-  
ing the diabolical pool:—

In whose recess  
The water had slept for many a year  
Unchanged and motionless;  
From the river stream it spread away  
The space of half a rood;  
The surface had the hue of clay  
And the scent of human blood;  
The trees and the herbs that round it grew  
Were venomous and foul;  
And the birds that through the bushes flew  
Were the vulture and the owl:  
The water was as dark and rank  
As ever a Company pumped;  
And the fish that was netted and laid on the bank  
Grew rotten while it jumped.

And, again, there is something very grand in  
the climax of Arminius's curse:—

I curse him by the hearts which sigh  
In cavern, grove, and glen;  
The sobs of orphaned infancy,  
The tears of aged men!

But take this, the preface to one of his  
happiest efforts, the second canto of the  
"Troubadour," and say whether it is not very  
pleasant reading, and something more:—

All milliners who start from bed  
To gaze upon a coat of red  
Or listen to a drum,  
Know very well the Paphian Queen  
Was never yet at Paphos seen;  
That Cupid's all a hum;  
That minstrels forge confounded lies  
About the Deities and skies;  
That torches all go out sometimes,  
And flowers all fade, except in rhymes;  
That maids are seldom shot by arrows,  
And coaches never drawn by sparrows.  
And yet, fair cousin, do not deem  
That all is false which poets tell,  
Of Passion's first and dearest dream,  
Of haunted spot and silent spell,  
Of long low musing, such as suits  
The terrace on your own dark hill,  
Of whispers which are sweet as lutes  
And silence which is sweeter still;  
Believe, believe,—for May shall pass,  
And Summer's sun and Winter's shower  
Shall dim the freshness of the grass  
And mar the radiance of the flower,—  
Believe it all, whate'er you hear  
Of plighted vow and treasured token,  
And hues which only once appear,  
And words which only once are spoken,  
And prayers whose natural voice is song,  
And schemes that die in wild endeavour,

And tears so pleasant you will long  
To weep such pleasant tears for ever:  
Believe it all! believe it all!  
Oh! Virtue's frown is all divine,  
And Folly hides his happy thrall  
In sneers as cold and false as mine;  
And Reason prates of wrong and right,  
And marvels hearts can break or bleed,  
And flings on all that's warm and bright  
The winter of his icy creed;  
But, when the soul has ceased to glow,  
And years and cares are coming fast,  
There's nothing like young love! no, no!  
There's nothing like young love at last!

After the specimens we have given—and  
we might give many more—we shall take no  
further pains to maintain our position, that  
to call Praed a writer of *vers de société*, and  
to class him with the manufacturers of  
"London Lyrics," is to do great injustice to  
one who possessed in no small degree the  
sacred flame of poetical genius, lit from the  
altar of the domestic hearth. We have yet  
to consider him, however, in the light in  
which he is best known—as a humourist and  
delineator of manners.

The age of wits has passed away to the  
limbo of satirists, epic poets, and the British  
drama. The fame of the conversation-makers  
is fast following them to the grave; but  
these poems revive for us the memory of a  
time when a pun was more than a distortion  
of words, and when wit and wisdom were not  
considered incompatible. Although the best  
joke must suffer when despoiled of its setting  
of quaint narrative, it is impossible to help  
laughing at

The startled priest struck both his thighs,  
And the abbey clock struck one!

He spurred Sir Guy o'er mount and moor,  
With a long dull journey all before  
And a short gay squire behind him!

Or, better still:—

I think that Love is like a play  
Where smiles and tears are blended;  
Or like a faithless April day,  
When shine with shower is ended.  
Like Colnbrook pavement, rather rough;  
Like trade, exposed to losses;  
And like a Highland plaid, all stuff,  
And very full of crosses.

But there are frequent touches of a highe  
humour, not devoid of pathos:—

I wish that I could run away  
From House, and Court, and Levee,  
When bearded men appear to-day  
Just Eton boys grown heavy.

Some king will come, in Heaven's good time,  
To the tomb his father came to;  
Some thief will wade through blood and crime  
To a crown he has no claim to;  
Some suffering hand will rend in twain  
The manacles that bound her,  
And gather the links of the broken chain  
To fasten them proudly round her.

Will it come with a rose or a briar?  
Will it come with a blessing or curse?  
Will its bonnets be lower or higher?  
Will its morals be better or worse?  
Will it find me grown thinner or fatter,  
Or fonder of wrong or of right?  
Or married, or buried?—no matter!  
Good-night to the season!—good-night!

Of this manner his best examples are to  
be found in the series called "Every-day  
Characters;" they exhibit all the minute  
observations, delicate handling, and subtlety  
of expression which distinguish the true  
artist. Compared with these later specimens,  
written in a variety of swinging ballad  
measures, the octosyllabic poems of "The  
Etonian" must be regarded in some degree  
as literary exercises; but a perusal of some  
of them—such as "The County Ball,"  
"Laura," and "Surly Hall"—will, we think,  
establish their high positive merit apart from  
the somewhat extraordinary fact that they  
were written in the leisure hours of a boy at  
school. They show considerable familiarity  
with English literature; there is a good deal  
of Swift in the poetry, as of Sterne in the  
prose, of "The Etonian;" but they show  
also that without which imitation of the best  
models is useless—a close and intelligent  
study of mankind.



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What would Præd have written had he been born in the situation of Burns or Chatterton? Nothing, we may feel assured, that would have exceeded in merit the poetry he has left us. A great poet is independent of education; but even Milton derives new sources of poetry from the stores of his learning. A poet of the second order may strike out a song or a poem here and there without any cultivation but that of Nature; but it is the educated mind alone that can combine humour and knowledge and taste with the inspiration of the muse, and continue to interest a circle of readers beyond the small knot of poetic enthusiasts. We are very far from claiming for Præd a place among the greater poets of the present century: he could never have been the high-priest of a new poetic faith, like Wordsworth; or the prophet of a new theory of metre, like Coleridge; or the ring-leader in any moral or mental aberration, like Byron; or the soothsayer of contemporary thought, like Tennyson. But his verses will find their way into selections for children; they will be read to infants; they will be well-known to school-boys; they will stand on the school-room book-shelf with "Horatius" and the "Lady of the Lake;" they may be called jingle, but they will be read; they may be voted superficial, but they will never be forgotten.

## SAVOY THE BEAUTIFUL.

*Murray's Handbooks: Switzerland, the Alps of Savoy, and Piedmont. (Murray.)*

SAVOY in autumn is probably as much like Milton's Eden as any country in the world. The rich and varied valleys form enormous gardens where corn and maize and buckwheat alternate with luxuriant herbage; and through them all grow mulberry-trees without number, bearing each its load of vines. The roads and lanes are bordered sometimes by planes, forming long avenues of intense shade, sometimes by huge walnuts and chestnuts. Everywhere, at intervals, the rounded lines of the other trees are broken by towering poplars; tall as those of neighbouring Lombardy. Over the bright streams, which pour down on all sides from the mountains, there grow luxuriant weeping willows, dipping their boughs in the clear water as it runs away from the quaint old corn-mills, where it has done its light day's work, and from which it escapes with many a joyful leap, like a schoolboy returning to his play! Then, the houses! Where, in Europe, are there such pretty cottages as in Savoy? Not in Switzerland, assuredly, where the chalets are all but so many toys; nay, nor even in the sweetest nooks of Shakespearian Warwickshire. For these Savoyard dwellings are houses, fit habitations for men and women—ay, for many generations of men and women, for they have stout walls for the lower storey, and famous cut-stone facings for doors and windows; and, if the gables be filled up with timber, and the roof with its deep eaves (all overgrown with vines) be only of thatch, it is always good wood and good straw, and never a damp and desolate ruin. Then such gables and queer unaccountable corners of ovens and outhouses, and always under the eaves two or three baskets hanging like gigantic mouse-traps—for what purpose, think you, O reader! in thief-troubled England? Simply to hold all the family store of provisions, to which, of course, any passer-by could help himself if he had the least inclination, and if there were thieves in Savoy! Before these pretty houses, well shaded by two or three splendid walnuts, there sit generally the mother and daughters of the family, busy at needlework, or some old crone comfortably dozing in an arm-chair. No one in the blessed South thinks it needful to work, eat, and rest always within closed walls as we do in England, as if the processes involved mysteries not to be exposed to the vulgar gaze without impropriety! Here lies a difference, assuredly, which, if the varied climate of north and south originally caused it, has certainly long gone beyond the natural and necessary results of climate. Do

English men and women sit and work, or read at their doors in our towns and villages upon a lovely summer evening? By no manner of means. If they want to enjoy themselves thoroughly, they go into some small parlour, where there is a blood-coloured paper, and a brick-coloured carpet, and some horse-hair covered chairs; and before the windows they put up thick brown gauze veils, or mayhap zinc ones, with little holes in them, by which inventions they obtain a limited view of the area rails outside, and protect themselves from the profaning glance of Mr. and Mrs. Smith, who are working beyond, and of the grocer's boy, who else might possibly have looked in. How sweet a retreat wherein to spend some dewy summer day, when the air is balm, and the sun is shining softly through the trees, and the birds and bees sing merrily in the boughs, and merely to exist in the outer world is happiness! But, then, we gain so much by our "privacy"!

The Savoyards do not seem to care one jot about privacy, but sit working and singing away at their cottage doors, and look up and smile at you as you pass; or, if it be a man who is at work and a woman who is passing by, he will raise his hat with simple courtesy and wish you a cheery "*Bon jour*." Very pleasant are these Savoyard faces—not handsome at all; they have square foreheads, and eyes wide apart; but nearly always those eyes are the kindest grey ones in the world—true and friendly. Now that the vintage has come, there is new life in everybody. First there are the walnuts to be gathered; and, all down the lanes, the boys are clambering and perching in the trees, and shaking down the nuts by thousands to the girls and women, gathering them into large baskets below. By-and-by these walnuts, some of which are as large as a bantam-hen's egg, will be crushed into oil, to serve for all manner of purposes of light and cookery. Not that the Savoyards lack butter—in no country is there better—and also a cheese, much like Stilton, of no mean merit. But always, in the land of fresh oil, it answers best for vegetables—for the excellent peas and *haricots verts* and *haricots blancs* of Savoy, as well as elsewhere. Then there are the apples to be got in for the winter use; and the carts full of them lumber along the roads, while the cattle which draw them wait for a chance when they are released, and poke their muzzles into the tempting heap—for which offence they are admonished by a good-humoured remonstrance, "*Ah!*" from their conductor. "*Conductor*" we must needs call him, not driver; for it would seem as if no beast except a horse were ever driven in Savoy, and the horses themselves in no stern manner. The sheep and the cows and goats follow their masters like dogs; and the oxen which draw the ploughs and carts (fine noble beasts of a soft brown colour, and with large quiet eyes shining under the pretty net-fringes tied to their horns) walk mildly up to their places at word of command, step across the pole, and hold their heads to be fastened for draught, and then march on with their load, perhaps after some small boy, who just walks in front and calls them after him, or the woman who leads them for the plough.

But walnuts and apples, and even corn and hay, are less important in Savoy than the harvest which the vines bear so plenteously. Nobody can picture what a garden of grapes a country may be made who has not seen the shores of Lake Bourget. Every field, whether of grass, or wheat, or maize, is dotted all over with mulberry-trees loaded with vines. Every roadside is hedged with them, trailed from tree to tree, or from light espaliers and ropes, forming garlands in every direction. The grapes—mostly of the purple sort—fall in thick bunches over the lanes, so that we have gathered them in our hands from a carriage in passing underneath; and the graceful leaves, turning red in their autumn hues, form a sort of bower over every corner of the roads. And everywhere through this garden-world of beauty and lux-

uriance break glimpses of the purple mountains and loveliest lake, over whose surface, now sea-green, now turquoise-blue, the shadows, *miroitements*, are glancing like shimmering steel. On one side is the wild and jagged Dent du Chat, over which, tradition avers, once rose the spears and banners of the Carthaginian host as Hannibal marched down upon Italy. Further away to the north, just above the water, is the abbey of Haute Combe, where stand the ancestral tombs of the House of Savoy—masters no longer of this fair land, the birth-place of their race; and far away to the south, past the grand precipitous cliffs of the Montfrénier, shining against the soft blue sky, the snowy chain of Mont Cenis. Each turn of the road, in whichever direction we go, reveals new beauty, and always in the same lovely setting of garlands of vines, forming frames for every picture. But there is one road beautiful above the rest, which we must needs describe apart. Past the long avenue of plane-trees out of Aix-les-Bains—past lanes fringed with vines, and shaded by walnuts—past fields where men are gathering grapes into huge casters by hundreds—past carts laden with the purple spoil, drawn by the gentle cattle—past the little shrines of Madonna along the walls—past the old carved wooden crosses, hung with faded wreaths of box—past the pretty villages nestled under their walnut-trees—and out, at last, upon the water, down a sweep of the road, which lays the whole lovely scene at our feet! The lake, stretching far away to the wooded knoll on whose summit stand the towers of Châtillon, lies shut in between the mountains, with Haute Combe beneath them on the one side, and the precipitous cliffs of Brisons and Les Rochers on the other. The carriage-road runs on the narrow ledge between the cliffs and the lake, while the solid rocks themselves are hewn into successive tunnels for the railway—made, as George Sand well says, to force the way for the communion of nations even where Nature seems to have built an eternal barrier against human intercourse, and where, in days of old, the machicolated turrets, which now guard these corridors of peace, would have bristled with a thousand darts to meet the approaching foe. Now we drive quietly beside the water, the huge mountain rising to our right, and frowning over the road like the terrible precipice which appalled poor Christian in "*Pilgrim's Progress*." Only our cliff, instead of fire and flame, breaks out with sweet blue campaniolas and pretty rock-plants, fringing the grey walls, and shrubs of unknown sorts, forming the outline far away up against the soft blue sky. It is evening, and the whole scene is one of utter calm and stillness. The mountains opposite are reflected in the lake, as in a mirror, one by one, and the line between land and water becomes effaced. There is no sound from the great solemn cliffs which wall us out from the world; only the wavelets of the lake beat against the shore beside us, calmly as the pulsations of a heart at rest. The sky grows golden and crimson in the sunset; and we know that the sun, which long ago left our sight behind the western mountains, has sunk altogether below the horizon. Then—so far south are we—the warm night comes on apace; and presently the stars shine out in the darkening heavens, and one beautiful planet hovers over the purple mountains, and reflects itself in the dark still lake. We drive on quietly, and the calm gathers deeper and deeper, as we pass at length one desolate ruined nunnery by the side of the lake, bowered still in the luxurious vines and overshadowing trees. It is all silent now, and no Ave ascends at vespers from those broken walls. The poor souls which sought there to rise to God through the barren and slippery paths of ascetic and solitary struggles have, let us believe, found Him far more nearly where such errors are no more.

Our course is over, and we turn back, past the wild cliffs and the softly beating lake, on whose breast the stars are



shining—past the corn-fields and the vines, and the sweet Savoyard villages, and the wayside images of Madonna, and the worn old crosses, and the deep, dark avenues of planes. The beauty of the scene has led us to forget the volume which has been our companion while wandering through the exquisite scenery of Savoy. But what Englishman goes abroad without his "Murray"? and what avails it to praise a Handbook which has already received a large share of public favour? F. P. C.

THE STRASBURG SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY.

*Jésus-Christ et les Croyances Messianiques de son Temps.* Par T. Colani. (Strasbourg: Treuttel et Wurtz; Paris: J. Cherbuliez.)

*Examen de la Vie de Jésus de M. Renan.* Par T. Colani, Pasteur. (Strasbourg: Treuttel et Wurtz; Paris: J. Cherbuliez.)

THE appearance of M. Renan's book has incidentally brought into greater prominence a small fraternity of able writers who form what is regarded in France as a new and distinct school of theology. The headquarters of this school, which aims at naturalizing in France the methods and results of German rationalistic criticism, are suitably to be found at the half-German city of Strasbourg. The periodical organ of the school is the quarterly *Revue de Théologie*, edited by M. Colani. Its leading members are MM. Colani, Reuss, Réville, and Scherer; to whom may probably now be added M. Athanase Coquerel the younger. Of these, M. Colani and M. Réville have a considerable reputation as preachers. M. Scherer, whom M. Guizot quotes with much respect in his recent work on the Essence of Christianity, is well known as a writer of reviews and essays. M. Reuss is a learned divine whose works on the History of Christian Theology in the Apostolic Age, and on the History of the Canon of Scripture in the Christian Church, have gained an established place in religious literature. French readers who wish to know, without studying German, the kind of criticism which M. Renan takes for granted in his rapid sketch are referred to the works of this Strasbourg school of theology.

The place which these writers occupy is an important one in their own country, although their tenets are not sufficiently original to give them much significance in the general history of theology. They are Protestant in the sense that they are not Roman Catholic; and they are distinguished from the large mass of free-thinking liberals by holding definite views concerning God, and thinking it worth while to carry on regular religious teaching. In this they differ, for example, from M. Renan. If it were not for his boisterous Americanism, and his strong political turn, they would closely resemble the late Mr. Theodore Parker. The more extreme Unitarians in England (as was shown by the reception of a sermon lately preached before some assembly of Lancashire and Cheshire Unitarians) are now welcoming opinions identical with those of M. Colani and his friends.

M. Renan's "Life of Jesus" has drawn forth criticisms and explanations from the Strasbourg school, as from every other religious school; and we may most conveniently estimate the doctrine of the "New Protestant Theology" by considering how it stands with reference to that author. Possibly some who have read with interest and delight the sermons of M. Colani may be startled to find that the *pasteurs* of this school have no other title to the name of Christians than that which M. Renan might have if he liked to claim it. They agree with him in regarding Jesus Christ as nothing more than a man. They agree with him in disbelieving "the supernatural." Jesus of Nazareth was a "noble initiator," a discoverer of ideas. They regard everything in the Bible which implies the supernatural as a fiction.

Every one who was at all acquainted with the destructive criticism of this century was

astonished to find M. Renan acknowledging himself compelled by his critical conscience to admit the authenticity of large portions of St. John's gospel. No treatment of this gospel short of making it a downright forgery had been felt by acute thinkers to be compatible with the denial of the supernatural character of our Lord. All the manifest unlikeness of this to the Synoptic gospels was made the most of, as favouring the hypothesis of a forgery; but there were still great difficulties to overcome, and the *à priori* impossibility of the supernatural was drawn upon largely by those who adopted this conclusion. M. Renan did not believe in the supernatural any more than Strauss or Baur; to him the notion of a man differing in nature or doing different acts from other men was as impossible as it was to them. But, in reading St. John's gospel, he could not get rid of the feeling that he was reading genuine history. He had the originality to disavow the most cherished and infallible result of criticism. He trusted to his own divination in the matter, and stands alone amongst unbelieving critics in receiving the fourth gospel as partly the work of the aged apostle himself, and in some particulars more exact than the earlier and more traditional gospels. Having determined to be loyal to his critical instinct, M. Renan did not shrink from the consequences which stared him in the face. M. Colani complains mournfully, and almost bitterly, that M. Renan was not constrained by the alternatives before him to follow in the track which Strauss and Baur had made for him. For one who accepts, in the slightest and most qualified degree, St. John's gospel as authentic, there could be, insists M. Colani, but two alternatives to choose from. He must either believe that Jesus wrought miracles, or he must hold him to be a deliberate impostor. The latter theory was the only one open to M. Renan. To him almost alone in this generation such a theory was not impossible; and in his light dexterous off-hand way he has commended it to the modern mind as the scientific solution of the Gospel history.

The Strasbourg theologians are utterly and indignantly opposed to this solution. They think, not unreasonably, that it has done great damage to the anti-supernatural cause. His work tells like a brilliant secession from the critical school. M. Renan is objectionable to Christians on one great ground. He is objectionable to all who think with M. Colani on two grounds. He has shown a constitutional unfitness for criticism by accepting the fourth gospel: he has shown an incapacity for judging in moral questions by attributing thaumaturgy and jugglery to the greatest and best of men.

According to the Strasbourg school, Jesus of Nazareth was a man wiser than his generation, who preached spiritual ideas. According to M. Renan, Jesus was possessed, indeed, by ideas, but, like other men, he could not be true to pure idealism, but became a revolutionist. He soiled his ideas with facts. There is a great deal in the gospels and in the early history of the Church which gains life and force from M. Renan's conception of our Lord as putting himself at the head of a world-wide revolution. But all this is intolerable to M. Colani, who sincerely reverences the prophet of Nazareth as a supremely good man. He has formed a conception of Jesus as a man who rose above everything Jewish, and desired to spread the doctrines of the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of humanity. He thinks that there was ignorance and confusion in the mind of Jesus, but never deliberate fraud. Whatever in the New Testament conflicts with the notion of Jesus as an idealist teacher is made short work of; it is the product of Jewish or early Christian invention. Indeed, if any one wished to realize how utterly arbitrary and inconsistent the science of modern criticism is not ashamed to be, he may see it at first-hand by reading the works of these French disciples of the Tubingen school. In one paragraph of M. Colani's "Examen," Renan,

Ewald, and the Strasburg critics stand, with reference to the most fundamental questions, in hopeless triangular contradiction.

The most special labour of M. Colani himself has been devoted to the subject of the Messianic beliefs of the Jews and of the degree in which Jesus claimed to be the Messiah. The first cause of M. Renan's error was his belief in the authenticity of the fourth gospel; the second was his belief that "Jesus played the Messiah." M. Colani has endeavoured to prove, by an elaborate inquiry into the history of Messianic belief and by a careful sifting of the language of the Synoptic gospels, that Jesus did not willingly represent himself as the Messiah. In his youth he was nourished upon the expectations common to his age and country. When he grew up he began to see the narrowness and absurdity of those expectations. But he also began to see that they were susceptible of a certain transformation. The idea of the kingdom of God might be spiritualized. He was conscious in his own person of being almost immeasurably superior to his fellow-men; and it occurred to him that he might, in a certain sense, call himself the Son of God, and even the Christ. If he was not the Christ of whom the fathers had spoken, he was something higher, as a preacher of pure ideas. Therefore Jesus, with a certain pleasure, allowed himself to be called by his disciples the Christ; but he did not openly claim and take to himself this title before the people.

In order to substantiate this latter assertion, it is necessary for M. Colani to show that "the Son of Man," by which name Jesus habitually called himself, was not a Messianic title. He contends that in the book of Daniel the Son of Man does not mean the Messiah, and that passages in other Apocalyptic books in which the Messiah is evidently called the Son of Man were inserted in post-Christian times. He regards this title as one chosen by our Lord for himself as expressing simply humiliation. By calling himself the Son of Man, he means that in the sight of God he is but a poor mortal. These topics form the bulk of the book and the pamphlet placed at the head of this article. The reader who is not previously disposed to be convinced will hardly accept M. Colani's arguments as conclusive, and he will wonder at the freedom with which "criticism" pronounces on the genuineness or spuriousness of passages in ancient documents; but he will find in our author a scholar worthy of respect, a clever and lucid writer, and a high-minded moralist. J. L. D.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS NAPOLEON.

*Le Progrès.* Par Edmond About. (Paris: Hachette.)

AS a lively, sparkling, witty writer M. Edmond About has a reputation as brilliant as his productions. In the present volume he has not the ambition to amuse, but simply to instruct. The dullest authors sometimes stumble into vivacity and vigour; and why should not vivacious, vigorous authors occasionally be dull? Of dulness M. About could not, if he would, be guilty; but now and then he is, in this work, dry and dreary, and frequently he has the awkwardness and feebleness of a man dealing with subjects far too large for his grasp. When he who has attracted us by his nimbleness and grace puts on the prophet's mantle, the huge majestic folds make him look punier than he is, and hamper his bounding movements. He marches clumsily, if he is able to march at all, or to keep from falling. With the prophet's mantle on, M. About stalks along with a certain dignity; but he does not seem at his ease, and has the appearance of hesitation and fear in his very efforts to be bold. M. About is the most hopeful of optimists, is an enlightened epicurean, and is as earnest as the mere man of letters can be when discoursing on an earnest topic. In the dedication of his book to Madame Dudevant he calls her the noblest spirit of our epoch. This is extravagant



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praise; but it is the only instance of flattery we have discovered in the volume. In every page, except the dedicatory page, M. About comes before us as an honest seeker, a brave speaker of the truth. Such testimony in his favour is important, because he has been accused of Imperialist sympathies. He bows, as so many who are not admirers of Louis Napoleon bow, to the Empire as a necessity. Accepting the Empire, not as the best imaginable government, but as the best possible in the circumstances, and as still popular with the vast majority of the nation, he is opposed to all violent changes for the sake of discredited theories and ruined dynasties. Without regard to political transformations, he considers the progress which France is making, or of which it is capable. He views progress in its most comprehensive, not in its loftiest sense. With progress, in its loftiest sense, he frankly avows that he does not wish to deal: we cannot therefore blame him for not treating thereof.

For M. About there are two primordial facts—science and industrialism. Other facts he does not deny: he simply passes them by as having no immediate bearing on what he aims to expound and to illustrate. Love, poetry, glory, devotion, the invisible, may be eternal realities; but, as a practical preacher of the gospel of positivism, M. About can dispense with them. Yet, curiously enough, he talks with eloquence and unction of order, and liberty, and law, and right—things, surely, having an ideal basis, as much as others which he thrusts aside as having no relation to the main purpose of his work. Adroit, ingenious, and keeping a persistent and perspicacious eye on the most solid utility, M. About yet attempts an impossible task. The industrial melts into the social, the social into the moral, the moral into the religious, the religious into the political; and the most prosaic mortal has his dreams of Eden and his yearnings for the unseen. We must contemplate the organic life of a great people as a whole; otherwise it is surely preposterous to speak about progress. To M. About, as the sharpest of logicians, we may logically say: "Either you should have strictly limited yourself to recording and predicting France's material march, or, if you wandered beyond the region of materialism to a nobler domain, you should have adored, if you could not delineate, what is sublimest in that domain." But, in heart, M. About is a Voltairian—perhaps, of modern Voltairians, the ablest. He knows, however, that Voltairianism cannot wield its ancient weapons; it cannot scoff and sneer and throw filth—smother in ordure what it disdains to transfix by epigrams. Its mode and instruments of warfare are now different: it can wound by the most exquisite irony; it can kill by the most magnificent contempt; it can superciliously ignore; and, the moment it is threatened with defeat, it can become the ally of triumphant Science. What Voltaire hated, the present race of Voltairians despise, and affect sometimes even to pity. He cried in his fury: "Crush the infamous thing!" His disciples, in their haughtiness and impatience, would cry—if they dared—"Remove the rubbish!" In France pure Voltairianism has long been dead. But what might almost be called a genial Voltairianism has been gaining sway there ever since the downfall of socialism, and the failure of Cousin and his followers to create a philosophy. Voltaire, if cynical and shallow, had good sense in abundance; his disciples, neither cynical nor shallow, possess his eminent sagacity. He abhorred superstition, but could tolerate kings and even despots; it is superstitions likewise—not tyrannies—that they are chiefly disposed to assail. Their attitude toward Louis Napoleon is neither servile nor selfish, though it may seem both; they merely bear the iron hand because they think it lies heavier on their foes than on themselves. Without openly favouring, Louis Napoleon is secretly the friend of this Neo-Voltairianism. It keeps the priests in check; it makes the people laugh, and those who laugh do not

conspire; it directs attention to science and industrialism, diffuses contentment with material developments, mocks Utopias, and is hostile to revolutions. This book, singularly outspoken, might almost have been written by Louis Napoleon himself. Indirectly it is a vindication of his policy. The French Emperor has discoursed about Napoleonic ideas, but few of them has he endeavoured to realize. It is by a departure from traditional Napoleonism that he has been a popular and fortunate monarch.

Apart from the paltry and perpetual interference with the press, France has perhaps at this moment more real freedom than it ever had before—more freedom, at least, than it had under the horrible thralldom of the Doctrinaires. The most social, the French are the least associative of nations; while the English, so strikingly unsocial, are of all nations the most associative. This is not a paradox, though it may sound like one. It is from quick impetuous instinct that the social man seeks companionship; and he obeys and trusts that instinct so completely as never to dream of co-operating to form permanent associations. On the other hand, the individual who is conscious, proud of his worth as an individual, repels social commune, viewed as a pleasure, but is active in organizing associations as a means of displaying and multiplying his own strength. Now Louis Napoleon strives, in his crooked and cumbersome way, to make the French an associative people. Not without success. The French have really begun to have faith in themselves—to be an associative race—to accomplish, without the aid of government, noble results. Of this new tendency M. About gives some interesting illustrations. To the south-west of Bordeaux lay a sterile tract, including about a million acres, parched in summer, inundated in winter, always wild and desolate; fruitful in nothing but fever and pestilence, it was the curse and the reproach of France. Chiefly by the patriotism and perseverance of a few persons—notably M. Chambrelent—this immense tract, which was not worth more than a franc an acre, has been so effectually reclaimed that it is expected to be worth six hundred millions of francs before the end of the present century. A miracle of a similar kind has been performed in the neighbourhood of Dunkirk. Here M. Gaspard Malo has been the principal agent. A chain of sandy heights has been, by the most admirable skill, entirely transfigured—lucern growing where dog's-grass used to have exclusive sway. In other provinces of France the associative principle is preparing itself for great and beneficent labours—revealing resources, creating wealth. But there are fatal influences which the wisest and best ruler is unable to overcome. The most formidable of those influences is the land law. In England the land law is far from being perfect; but perhaps, on the whole, it is less mischievous than the French. While in England about the fifth, in France about the half of the population is engaged in agriculture. Now M. About maintains, and with much show of reason, that, if an enlightened agricultural system were adopted, three or four millions of sturdy labourers would do thoroughly what is inefficiently done by eighteen or twenty millions of half-starved peasants, many of them dignified with the vain title of proprietors. The passion of the French peasant for the smallest field, the smallest morsel of land which he can call his own, has been often pictured by French writers, by none more eloquently than Michelet. In sombre colours M. About delineates all the disastrous effects of this passion. For the most part the French peasant is temperate, industrious, and so penurious as to be almost ferocious in his avarice. Yet, with exceptions, his life is an unbroken monotony of poverty, struggle, anxiety, and pain. But his fierce battle with indigence benefits no one. He, the pauper, helps to pauperize France, being the one grand obstacle to scientific husbandry. In England a half, in France only a sixth of the soil is devoted to pasture, though France is as well fitted as

England to be a pastoral country. Now, as long as France swarms with millions of helpless, despairing proletarians, enterprise must be deadened, self-reliance can have no root, and the associative principle no adequate scope. The remedy is simple: it is to give every landed proprietor the liberty of leaving his estates, let them be large or small, few or many, to whom he pleases. Besides the land belonging to the communes, and to ecclesiastical and charitable establishments, which M. About says is always badly cultivated, the forests, as he informs us, which are the property of the State, are worth three thousand millions of francs, or more than a hundred millions of pounds sterling. He proposes that these forests should be sold. In the hands of the State they are of little value, as their management is entrusted to hosts of incompetent or dishonest functionaries. As, however, forests, in numerous parts of France, nourish the land with needful moisture, he recommends that the owners of the soil should be compelled to plant forests where it is demonstrated that they are indispensable for purposes of irrigation.

M. About is a strenuous advocate for English modes of doing things, and his allusions to England are frequent and flattering. Doubtless we have as much to learn from the French as they have to learn from us. But it is interesting to find a gifted and intelligent Frenchman teaching his countrymen one of the cardinal English virtues—indomitable individuality. No one, however, knows better than M. About that the individuality which the Englishman manifests in public and private affairs is as much the fruit of education as of nature. The education of Frenchwomen is entirely cloistral; the education of French youths, when not cloistral, is given up to narrow-hearted, narrow-minded pedants, or to hard, remorseless men of science. When the school-education of a Frenchwoman is at an end, she enters, by an early marriage, on a world of which she is grossly ignorant. There have been no softening transitions, no gradual instruction and preparation, no slow and salutary formation of domestic habits. The Frenchwoman, then, either becomes a prude and a bigot, or yields to temptations which are irresistible, from their novelty, still more than from their force and charm. At school and at college the French youth acquires little that can be of use to him in his future career; and what he learns he learns badly. His deepest feelings are a hatred of control and a contempt for those solemn quacks his professors. From his experience, short as it has been, he is disposed to consider one half of mankind Tartuffes, and the other half twaddlers. Already the Voltairian poison has penetrated to his soul, and he is to the last, with ebbings and flowings of belief and unbelief, a superstitious sceptic. Now, with women and men so educated, and with a prodigious multitude not educated at all, how complicated and tragical must long be the condition of France! How, out of such perplexing, paralyzing elements, can a valiant individuality emerge? If, then, for the material well-being of France, to open a fair field to the associative principle, the abolition of the existing land law is an inexorable preliminary, for the moral well-being of France the courage to make education both rational and national is still more urgently needed. M. About deplures those monstrous inconsistencies of which his country is guilty—that land which is the leader of progress and the champion of reaction, the propagator of infidelity and the protector of the Papacy; and, more ridiculous and lamentable than all, a universal liberator—unable to give or to keep liberty. But the inconsistencies are traceable, less to the mobility, the fickleness of the French character, about which too much has been said, than to conflicting forces which, like the Federals and Confederates in America, are constantly eager for the onset, yet never gain any decisive battles. On the downfall



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of Napoleon the clerical party rose to authority—irritated, but not much wounded, by the assaults of Paul Louis Courier and other Voltairians, and mingling with the ancient dogmas the sonorous, albeit hollow, sentimentalities of Chateaubriand and Lamartine. During the reign of Charles the Tenth the clerical party lost in power, but increased in audacity. This audacity provoked the July revolution—a revolution mainly aiming, as M. About avers, at the overthrow of Jesuits and priests. The reign of Louis Philippe was distinguished by the progressive tendency to extend, to emancipate, and to elevate education, the priests retiring more and more within the sphere of their legitimate functions. After the February revolution the treasure so laboriously gathered by timid and careful hands was scattered to the winds. In sheer and shameful poltroonery, in abject and childish dread of the Red Republic and of Socialism, the middle classes surrendered without a murmur—with, indeed, a sort of enthusiastic baseness to the clerical party. They had grown conservative from fear; and the Church, as the most conservative of institutions, stood between them and their real or imaginary foes. What then was proclaimed as a triumph of Napoleonism proved to be infinitely more a triumph of Ultramontanism; and it is with a rising generation of Ultramontanists that Louis Napoleon has to reckon. To the dazzled eye of Europe he is the master of France; to the undazzled eye of M. About, and of those thoroughly acquainted with the state of France, he is the slave of the middle classes, who are, for the time being, the slaves of the priests; and he must, as commanded, head a crusade for progress or a crusade for reaction, or remain altogether inactive and get the reputation of being a Solomon when he merely bends to a fatality. This last alternative suits best his apathetic, indolent, procrastinating, but resolute nature.

M. About, however, attaches too much importance to the movements and the example of France. It is questionable whether France has not played a more brilliant part in the world's affairs than it can ever play again. In the growth of new and noble nations no single country can now mould as France sixty years ago moulded the destinies of mankind. The world is in the mood to do homage to the least exalted of all virtues—moderation; there is a horror of extremes; exigencies have more empire than passions or principles; and, in Denmark, Poland, and elsewhere, murder is committed without fury and in the most deliberate fashion.

A cold and colourless liberalism, a lassitude that would fain not be disturbed, a satisfaction with nothing, and an unwillingness to meddle with anything, a dislike to reformers because they are too noisy and to idealists because they seem akin to madmen—these are the characteristics of the period. Is France an exception? Not enough so, if at all, to become a perilous revolutionary contagion. France succeeds admirably just now in keeping the world uneasy; but this is scarcely a feat to be proud of. It is not dread—it is simply discomfort which France excites; and, if war does not speedily come, the nations will grow tired of maintaining enormous armaments for no other reason than that France keeps Europe uncomfortable. The fate of bugbears is at last to be despaired; and it may be the fate of France—a fate most humiliating to French vanity. Well might the nations say to France, "Physician, heal thyself." But diseased nations, like diseased persons, think it one of their chief duties to give medical advice and aid where it is not wanted. A healthy man never dreams of playing the doctor; but the invalid persuades himself that he can cure every malady except his own. The heart of Rousseau was sore and sick, even to insanity; yet Rousseau appointed himself physician to the human race. France likewise—that land of social anguish, anomaly, and leprosy, that land whose low moan, varied by shrieks of de-

spair, torments us evermore—sets up as healer and regenerator of disordered constitutions, principally relying on a free use of the lancet. It is fortunate that France has wise and patriotic sons, such as M. About, to tell her that she can best be the physician of the nations by giving the example of health. Avoiding vague speculations, M. About points out in detail all the reforms which France needs: he shows how grand, without being menacing, haughty, or selfish, the attitude of France might be abroad, and how various and momentous are the labours at home which clamour to be done; and that France, outwardly prosperous, has no excuse for not doing them. In twenty years the public revenue has doubled, or nearly so; and, though agriculture may lag behind, commerce and manufactures are flourishing. Still all this, along with what is divinest in art, and science, and literature, and philosophy, is not progress—is not that for which a nation lives. All of us who take an interest in France want, instead of a superstitious and sceptical and licentious land shaken by fever-fits of revolution, to see a truly moral and religious country. The clergy of France were never so zealous, so pure, so self-denying, as in these days. Pity that, instead of wasting their energies in a desperate attempt to gain a power which must be torn from their reluctant hand at the very first outbreak of the national wrath, they are not willing to forget the priest in the minister of mercy, in the divider of the bread of life. But it is from a higher source than priests, on the one side, or philosophers, on the other, that salvation and hope must come.

F. H—A.

## A SENSATION NOVEL.

*Black Moss: a Tale by a Tarn.* By the Author of "Miriam May" and "Crispen Ken." Two Volumes. (Bentley.)

"BLACK MOSS" does not give you the idea of a book that has been altogether invented. The principal character is so repulsive, his crimes are so revolting, that a writer would scarcely have imagined such material for the purposes of fiction, though they are likely enough to form the subject of some local tradition which has lost nothing in the process of "handing down." It would be too much to suppose that men do not take more or less kindly to evils by which they live. It must be a very amiable doctor who approved of a perpetually healthy neighbourhood; and a lawyer who told us he was sorry to hear of litigation we simply would not believe. A soldier makes no secret of occasionally wishing for war; and even that profoundly immaculate person a satirist, who takes a delight in scourging vice, would scarcely like to find his occupation gone. Indeed, many men shoot folly as it flies without the smallest ill-will towards the folly—no more, indeed, than the sportsman bears to the pheasant, for whom he has a sort of affection, and whose breed he takes pains in preserving. For similar reasons an undertaker may look with more complacency than most people upon an unhealthy season; and even such a monster as Gideon Cuyp may have existed. But an isolated instance is unlikely to convey the idea of reality; and the character, it must be confessed, has the effect of being overdrawn.

Gideon Cuyp is the undertaker of Black Moss, a valley in Cumberland nearly covered by a tarn. He is a very uninviting man, having a yellow and wizened face, capable of diversified and unlimited contortion, and a limp in his gait. His mind, however, is supposed to make up for these deficiencies; and he is generally respected as a particularly pious, charitable, self-denying man, who buries the dead upon such easy terms as scarcely to keep himself among the living. The fact is, as the author frankly informs us at the outset, he is a miser, and something worse. He is a much sharper practitioner than is generally supposed, and, by dint of most diabolical methods of making business, has realized an immense hoard of gold, which

he keeps in a chest carefully hidden away—in a grave. A little doctoring, and the sale of drugs and nostrums, give him some assistance; and, in addition to this, when a fever breaks out in the valley, he gets the clothes of its victims under pretence of burning them, and has them sold at temptingly cheap prices to others, who take the contagion, and so become his customers in turn. At the opening of the book a scourge of a peculiarly malignant character is desolating the valley. It is caused by the pollution of the drinking-water by a drain from the churchyard, the connexion having been made by Cuyp himself, who, as "Inspector of Nuisances" to the parish, has good opportunity for encouraging them. It is a "Joodgment of God," according to his account; and, coming from so good a man, the opinion makes the parish think seriously of its sins. There is scarcely a family whom the plague has not touched; and in due time it reaches the Abbey, the seat of Lady D'Aeth, and strikes down her beautiful daughter Undine. They are painful scenes that follow—caused by the anxiety of the mother to preserve her daughter's body, and the fraud practised upon her by Cuyp, who pretends to have a specific for the purpose. The result is that he is in higher favour than ever at the Abbey and elsewhere; and Lady D'Aeth adopts, in the place of her own child, his niece, who has been living under his care. This is Minna Norman—such a charming person, so beautiful and good, so graceful and refined, and of caste so superior to her ostensible position that her selection is no wonder; and the reader is not even surprised when he hears that her protector takes her to London, presents her at court, and introduces her to the great world. This is a new era in the book; and the pleasant pictures that follow are a relief after the gloom of the tarn, which has given us something of a chill. The author, however, is no flatterer of fashionable frivolities, and lays a bold hand upon certain recognised customs—as when, for instance, poor Minna is frightened at the style of *corsage* which the milliner designs for her presentation, and implores to be taken back to Black Moss rather than be made to wear it; her remonstrances, it is pleasant to know, being attended with success. At court she makes an immense hit, being at once installed as the *belle* of the season, to the infinite chagrin of a certain Lady Feodore Langdale whom she displaces from that position. And here her unconscious simplicity is very charmingly drawn. She does not want to reign, she says, and would rather abdicate. She even seeks her rival, who has been studiously kept from every assembly in which she is likely to appear. At last they meet at a ball; and the scene which passes between them is worth transcribing as a novelty in fiction:—

Feodore Mounttrevor had been led up to her seat; and, after a little while, she was glad that sultry night to get into the cooler air of the covered balcony, out of the suffocating heat of the ball-room. There she had sat alone for some time, busied, as it seemed, with the choice flowers of the bouquet in her hand. As she so sat on, she saw that some one had also entered and was coming near her. And then, when she glanced up, Minna Norman stood before her. She started with an angry exclamation and a withering look of utter scorn from her beautiful and flashing eyes, and would likely have swept Minna away—bodily away, even to her oversetting in that balcony—had not Minna timidly and calmly murmured this beginning—

"I am come," she said, "to ask you not to be any more unhappy about me. I want to tell you how sorry I am that anything which I have done has given you pain—I—"

"You have said enough. I desire that you will no further dare address me. Do you hear? Let me pass."

"Oh, Lady Feodore! I think you cannot know me;" and she almost knelt at the feet of the embittered girl, and she still stayed there beseechingly before her.

The look which flashed from the face of Feodore Mounttrevor was, as she heard these words, like to some gesture borrowed from a fiend.

"I know you, as all the world now knows you, as the drab of an undertaker; and I wish to know



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no more of such a line. Let me pass, I say. You shall not hold me here."

But even before an insult such as this was did Minna Norman's sweet and unruffled gentleness keep the ground; and, though the threatening girl stood almost over her, she did not shrink from what she meant to do.

"Lady Feodore, it is because I do not wish to be standing in your way, either here or elsewhere, that I have thought to come and say what I am saying now, for I cannot any longer bear to feel that my presence is so unbearable to Lady Langdale and yourself. Indeed, I do not think that any one ever hated me before. I never meant to make you so unhappy about me."

"Do not persist in this impertinent mistake. Your presence anywhere is not recognised by my mamma, and is not noticed by me. You must surely forget yourself, and that your uncle is—Let me pass, or others shall remove you."

So, as she hissed these threats and insults out, was she pushing Minna Norman back; but so was she not pushing back Minna's resolution.

"Oh, don't make me more wretched than I am, for you will never see me anywhere again. I am going away next week for ever. Aunt says I may; for I cannot any longer bear these things. Do, do speak something kind to me before I go."

Now it is not intended that anything should be overstated here; therefore it must be said that Feodore Mounttrevor had, after all, been only educated up to speaking and thinking so very bitterly. She would not have so spoken or so thought but for her mother. Her mother would not let her be as God had made her; for which thing she will have presently to answer; but then that is her business and not ours. So the chiefest part of her deformity was acquired. In her heart of hearts, all was not dark; and what there was of light Minna had reached now. There are some things too sacred to be written down. And so was the sacred fight that Feodore Mounttrevor fought with her better self in that balcony that night. Too sacred! for was not that Father other than the earl covering her with strength, and showing her the way to stand? But the issue of that fighting, to her honour, must not be hidden here. It is told then in these words. She did not call on any one to sweep Minna Norman from her path. She gave her hand as a true girl—for Minna had conquered.

Minna, meanwhile, has had all the world at her feet. She has the most brilliant offers, but rejects them with disdain. One of her admirers, however, the popular Minister of State, Fabian Massareene, will not be lightly refused. Not only is he the idol of the people, but he is the idol of society, and has been so accustomed to have the world at his feet that the new situation seems unnatural. A conversation with Lady D'Aeth gives him the clue to the state of the case: Minna has left her heart at Black Moss, with the vicar of the parish, Arthur Melchior—a noble, devoted, Christian gentleman, but half-starving on his miserable stipend. This difficulty Massareene meets by a stroke of statesmanship, and offers his rival the bishopric of Sierra Leone, but without success. But a visit to Lady D'Aeth is easily improvised after her return to the Abbey, and then Massareene plays upon the cupidity of Gideon Cuyp, and the decisive action of the drama sets in. Gideon agrees to sell his niece to the rich man, and, in order to accomplish the sale, determines to get rid of the poor one. There is a flood in the tarn, and the shutting of certain water-gates will most certainly overwhelm the vicarage, which lies low in the valley. He has previously given Melchior the fever by sending him an infected coat to give to a poor man; but Melchior has recovered, principally through avoidance of the polluted water and taking doses of brandy instead—a course of treatment which Cuyp has vainly endeavoured to divert. This time all seems safe. The water rises; but the vicar is saved through a popular tumult, caused by a discovery of some of the undertaker's practices, brought about by the affair of the coat, and the designer becomes himself the victim. He is drowned in the grave opened for an unexpected coffin, and into which he has got for the purpose of removing his money.

The story might here have ended. Minna has money, the greater part of which the undertaker has always appropriated. She

also inherits her uncle's hoard. But the author has introduced a complication which would have been at any rate more acceptable had it been free from other objection. Massareene proves to be Minna's father. His deserted wife, supposed to be dead, reveals the fact to prevent the possible marriage; and Massareene dies of the shock, with just time to repent. So Sybil Massareene—Minna no more—inherits his immense wealth as well as that of Cuyp, who is not her uncle, but only a distant relative, and bestows all upon the poor vicar—who is then preferred, through the former recommendation of his rival, to a vacant deanery.

But for the objection referred to—a very serious one—the book is worthy of praise. The character of Cuyp may be exaggerated, but it is drawn with singular care and consistency, and perhaps it is only in an English atmosphere that it could cause cavil. In a novel by Balzac we should find it quite natural, and, indeed, it might well be mistaken for one of his elaborate dissections of humanity. For the rest, it must be said for the author that he writes with graphic power, and, if he does not construct his stories with care, he invests them with strong interest.

S. L. B.

## A BOOK FOR THE COUNTRY.

*A Journal of Summer-time in the Country.*  
By Robert Aris Willmott. Fourth Edition.  
With Introductory Memoir by his Sister. (J. R. Smith.)

ALL lovers of literature have a kindly feeling for the memory of Mr. Willmott. His unpretentious volumes are full to the brim of curious illustrations, allusions, and comparisons. They display extensive knowledge, a felicitous fancy, much delicate perception, and a loving appreciation of all that is beautiful and good. There is a curious quaintness about Mr. Willmott's style which accords, not inaptly, with the subjects he has selected. In one of his chapters he reminds us that there was not long ago at Pompeii "the outline of a head with a pen behind the ear as you may see it every day in London." His own writings give a point to the illustration. While entering fully into the literary spirit of his own age, he is on terms of the most affectionate familiarity with the authors of an earlier period. His love of classical literature is genuine; but his love of English literature, and especially of our old poets and divines, is passionate and profound. One could almost believe that he had lived with Jeremy Taylor at Golden Grove, or with Spenser at Kilcolman; that he had shared in the retirement of Cowley, or discussed with Shenstone the embellishment of the Leasowes. Sometimes, but not often, Mr. Willmott's fancy for an antique garb renders him scarcely tolerant of our modern attire; sometimes, in maintaining an obsolete opinion, he betrays the strength of early prejudice. "Why," he exclaims, "read the modern treatise or sermon when you have Hooker or Donne?" And, in another place, to show how great events hang on trivial circumstances, he says:—"A proclamation furls the sails of a ship; and Cromwell, instead of plying his axe in a forest-clearing of America, blasphemes God and beheads his sovereign at home." Mr. Willmott is acute in discerning coincidences of thought, and in pointing out instances of plagiarism in his favourite authors; but his own writings show how impossible it is to be at all times original. One example will suffice from the volume before us. The author is writing of the Growth of Beauty:—

"A thought comes into my mind, as I shake the rain out of this lily, how calm and unpretending is the growth of everything beautiful in God's visible world! No noise! no pretension! You never hear the opening rose, nor the tulip shooting forth its gorgeous streaks. The soul grows in beauty as its life resembles the flowers!"

The thought is well expressed; but we can scarcely doubt that Mr. Willmott, at the moment of writing it, had in his mind a magnificent passage of Edward Irving's, in

which he speaks of "noiseless Nature putting forth her buds by drinking the milk of her existence from the distant sun," and shows how all God's works are carried forward by secret processes.

Mr. Willmott's "Journal of Summer-time in the Country" has been for a long time before the public, and has been duly appreciated. To criticize it is therefore unnecessary; but the present edition contains a brief memoir by his sister, about which we have to say a few words. The secluded, yet troubled career of Robert Aris Willmott may add a chapter to "the calamities of authors;" but we cannot help suspecting that many of his difficulties arose from his own want of carefulness and forethought. He was born in 1809, and commenced his education at Merchant Tailors' School, from whence he was sent to Harrow, where, in 1828, he published a small volume which received the cordial praise of James Montgomery. In the same year he obtained a private tutorship, with a salary of three hundred guineas a year—a splendid piece of good-fortune for a young man of nineteen. While thus engaged he found time to write for various periodicals and to prepare translations for the press from Greek, Latin, and French authors.

In 1832 Mr. Willmott, who had already published his "Lives of the English Sacred Poets," was entered of Trinity College, Cambridge. Then followed in rapid succession a number of volumes from his pen:—"Conversations at Cambridge," "Pictures of Christian Life," "The Parlour Table-book," &c. In 1841 he took his B.A., and, in the following year, having previously obtained the curacy of St. James's Ratcliffe, he was ordained by the Bishop of London. For two years he laboured with untiring energy in this important sphere; but the labour proved too much for his health, and he was compelled to resign the post. After awhile Mr. Willmott, having previously done temporary duty in Oxfordshire, was appointed rector of a new church built by the late Mr. Walter of Bear Wood. And here, "with the kindness and good-will of each member of Mr. Walter's family," he passed nearly seventeen years of his life. His lot should have been a happy one; but the memoir contains intimations of family difficulties, and it appears also that, years before, he had become security for a relative, and was now saddled with a large debt. Mr. Walter died in 1847; but his son continued to befriend Mr. Willmott, paid his debt of £900, raised his stipend from time to time until it reached the sum of £400, built him a house which he occupied rent-free, and, when his health required it, provided him with a clerical assistant.

One of the first-fruits of Mr. Willmott's leisure at Hurst was the publication of the "Biography of Jeremy Taylor"—a charming work, which the writer of the memoir omits to mention, and which was welcomed by a genial and appreciative review in the columns of the *Times*. "Summer-time in the Country," which followed in 1849, won from Mr. Kingsley a hearty tribute of praise. In a letter to the author he says:—"I am exceedingly struck by the richness, the 'density' (chemically speaking) of it—the great quantity of thought and information to a given space of paper. . . . Some men might have made two octavo volumes out of the same stuff and fancied that they had not watered the public's milk." The work thus lauded was followed by "Precious Stones," and, in 1861, by the "Pleasures of Literature"—a volume which has passed through several editions both in England and Germany. Mr. Willmott never married; but we learn that a considerable portion of his income was devoted to the support of his mother and sisters. In spite of Mr. Walter's generous conduct, he appears to have been continually involved in difficulties. His means were not only straitened by the claims upon his purse, but he evidently found it difficult properly to limit his expenditure. An old poet says:—

"To mortal men great loads allotted be;  
But, of all packs, no pack like poverty."



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The truth of the saying was verified in Mr. Willmott's experience. With a good income, which was doubtless considerably increased by the sale of his books, his poverty became chronic, for he had constant claims on his purse, and, although always generous, does not appear to have been equally judicious. Towards the close of his life an estrangement occurred between Mr. Willmott and Mr. Walter, the cause of which is not explained by the writer of the memoir. But we learn that liabilities had been incurred which Mr. Walter proposed to settle, while, on the other hand, it is stated that "Willmott became exposed to a course of behaviour that admits of no extenuation." Mr. Walter's generous and friendly conduct to Mr. Willmott for a long course of years ought to have protected him from an aspersion like this, or, if the writer of the memoir felt bound to make it, she should have supported it by facts. Mr. Willmott, on relinquishing his charge, received a pension of one hundred and sixty pounds per annum, "under the peculiar conditions that he was neither to take duty nor reside within ten miles of the scene of his former labours, and that he was not to marry." The rest of the story is soon told. Upon leaving Berkshire Mr. Willmott resided at Nettlebed, in Oxfordshire, and occupied himself in literary pursuits until his death, which took place on the 27th May, 1863.

From the somewhat melancholy close of Mr. Willmott's life it is pleasant to turn again to the raciest and most suggestive of his works. The edition of "A Summer-time in the Country" now before us is beautifully printed at the Chiswick Press, and the volume is one admirably adapted for country reading. We commend it to every one who is out of town—that is, to all the world save editors and cab-drivers.

## ENGLISH WATERING-PLACES—TENBY.

*A Guide to Tenby and its Neighbourhood.* Edited by R. Mason. Fifth Edition. With Sixty-Three Illustrations. (Tenby: Mason; London: Stanford.)

UNHAPPY the man who is compelled at this vacation-season to remain "in populous city pent" and to endure the foul air and oppressive heat of London! To him the very name of Tenby may recall pleasant memories of balmy days and delicious evenings. The quaint little town deserves all the encomiums that of late have so plentifully been bestowed upon it. Its bracing air, its fine bay, its clear waters, and the hard tracts of golden sands which surround the lofty promontory on which it has been picturesquely built, have been so often and so highly eulogized that it is surprising the town has not increased in size commensurate with its fame. The population, however, seems to remain stationary. On the 1st of May, 1861, it possessed precisely the same number of inhabitants which it possessed on the 1st of May, 1851; and, to judge from the distribution of the population and the age of the houses, we probably cannot be far wrong in believing that it contained about the same number on the 1st of May a hundred years ago. Tenby is no flaunting stucco-adorned town of yesterday, like many of its compeers, but is substantially built, is surrounded by a wall, and has the honour, according to the present Guide, of dating back to the year 878, "when the Danes landed in Pembrokeshire." It was a place of note throughout the Middle Ages. The Flemings, who during the first half of the twelfth century immigrated into Pembrokeshire, where they allied themselves with the Anglo-Normans who had previously settled there, established a woollen manufactory in the town, and carried on an extensive trade in that fabric with other parts. From the time of their settlement down to the Commonwealth, Tenby experienced many ebbs and flows of prosperity, the most salient points in its history being its destruction on two occasions by the Welsh; its occupation by the French, who

had come to assist Glendower's rebellion; the escape from its harbour of Henry VII. and his uncle Jasper Pembroke after the battle of Tewkesbury; the strengthening of its walls by Elizabeth in apprehension of the Spanish Armada; the attack of the Parliamentary army by sea and land which it sustained in 1643, when it was taken and plundered; and, finally, in 1648, having again been garrisoned for the king, its fall, a second time, into the hands of the troops of Cromwell. After this last event Tenby gradually declined till the end of the last century, when it began to emerge from its temporary obscurity and to be spoken of as a fashionable watering-place.

With the exception of Mr. Venables's excellent Handbook to the Isle of Wight, we know no Guide to any watering-place more complete and more free from the vices generally inherent in such compilations than that before us. After giving a brief historical sketch of the town, Mr. Mason succinctly describes its walls and ecclesiastical buildings; enumerates and characterizes the walks, drives, and marine excursions around Tenby, and gives a classified list of the antiquities; furnishes a compact account of the geology, botany, and conchology of the district; and then, as might be expected, concludes his labours with the medical testimony to the excellency of the air, purity of the water, and general suitability of the place for patients suffering from disease. As this item must necessarily be of great importance to those invalids who seek a watering-place suitable to their complaints, we cannot do better than quote the trustworthy opinion of Dr. Dyster, an eminent physician who has settled at Tenby and practices among the poor without fee.

The tongue of land on which Tenby lies is washed on the north and south by the sea, and consequently its atmosphere is thoroughly marine. It is singularly free from fogs both by land and sea, and in the depths of winter frequently enjoys a purity of sky and a power of sun known to very few English towns. As to temperature, it appeared, during the most severe frost known in England for many years, that Tenby was only  $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  lower than Torquay, while its temperature exceeded that of Bournemouth by  $6^{\circ}$  or  $8^{\circ}$ , and other less favoured parts of the kingdom by  $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ . In the writer's experience, extending over sixteen years, water has never frozen within the house, even in rooms without fires, although this has occurred at Pau, in the South of France. The water supply, though insufficient in quantity, is excellent in quality, and probably unsurpassed in purity, unless perhaps by that derived from Loch Katrine. Being open to every side, Tenby has probably more than its due proportion of wind, and it wants walks and drives that are sheltered from the east; but this wind has not the cruel withering character which it so often displays in England. And it must not be concealed that Tenby is very deficient in level ground, on which invalids, and especially those suffering from chest affections, can take exercise; and this in many cases has been found a great and serious privation. On the whole, enough has been said to show that Tenby offers some great attractions to an invalid, and at all events enough to induce any who may be in search of a winter nest in England to make further inquiries. As to its suitability to particular morbid conditions nothing needs to be said, as of course every invalid would in the first place make, or cause to be made, definite inquiries, and then consult his medical adviser as to the applicability of the conditions to his own special case. Broadly, it may be safely said that few, if any, English climates are equal to that of Tenby.

The editor has been too chary, we think, in acknowledging his obligations to those who have aided him. He confesses his indebtedness to Mr. Parker and Mr. Freeman for the assistance he has borrowed from them in his architectural descriptions; to Mr. Gosse for the very large number of quotations from his book on Tenby; and to the medical gentlemen who have furnished notices of the climate, because they are all authorities in their several departments; but he neglects to acknowledge his very numerous obligations to other sources, excusing himself in

the preface with the plea that to have done so would have encumbered his pages "without serving any useful purpose." Singularly enough, he has forgotten to tell us that nearly the whole of the sixty-three excellent illustrations by Mr. Adveno Brooke originally appeared in the pages of the *Art-Journal*, and afterwards in Mr. and Mrs. Hall's "Book of South Wales." Mr. Mason, however, is not always so reticent. He reiterates, for instance, his advice to the reader to be sure and see "Tales and Traditions of Tenby" and "The Tenby Observer;" brings in St. David's, a spot five-and-thirty miles from Tenby, in order to mention a work on the history and antiquities of that city; and gives an elaborate account of the bone-caves in Glamorganshire, to introduce "A Week's Walk in Gower"—all these books being printed, published, and sold by himself! Some of the illustrations, too, appear to be introduced merely "to be pretty and fill up." So, at least, we may fairly infer when, under the heading of "Ecclesiastical Antiquities of Gower," we find four woodcuts given to ten lines of letter-press, and when a sketch of Rôsmarket Church affords an opportunity for this full and vivid description of its architectural features:—"Rôsmarket is a village near New Milford, and was the birthplace of Lucy Walter, a favourite of Charles the Second and mother of the unfortunate Duke of Monmouth."

Notwithstanding these faults, however—which, if not venial, are of slight consequence to the reader—the book forms, as we have said, a complete guide to Tenby, to its fine coast scenery, and to the surrounding district.

We should like to know on what authority Mr. Mason and all who write on Tenby state that Henry VII., after his accession to the throne, granted a lease of the crown-lands near Tenby to the family who had aided him in escaping to Brittany after the fatal battle of Tewkesbury. We can find no trace in the Public Record Office of this grant having been made.

## LIFE IN JAVA.

*Life in Java: with Sketches of the Javanese.* By William Barrington D'Almeida. In Two Volumes. (Hurst and Blackett.)

MR. D'ALMEIDA quotes, as being in some measure apposite to the pretensions of his work, the following passage from Sterne's "Sentimental Journey":—"What a large volume of adventures may be grasped within this little span of life by him who interests his heart in everything, and who, having eyes to see what time and chance are perpetually holding out to him as he journeyeth on his way, misses nothing he can fairly lay his hands on." Animated by the spirit of this passage, Mr. D'Almeida has noted and put on record all he could fairly lay his hands on during a three months' tour in Java. We do not know whether the journey was undertaken for business or for pleasure; but, whatever the object might be, our author, accompanied by his wife, spent three months very happily in the most interesting island of the Eastern Archipelago, enjoyed a great deal of locomotion, saw much fine scenery, witnessed many strange customs, heard and noted down a great many stories, legendary and historical, met with several hospitable people, and has added something to our knowledge of Java and the Javanese.

We must acknowledge at the outset that the interest of Mr. D'Almeida's volumes is not uniformly sustained. "Life in Java," like life elsewhere, becomes occasionally monotonous and fatiguing. It is not often, however, that we suffer from weariness in perusing these volumes, which we should have read with still greater interest had they contained a map of the author's route. Setting aside these drawbacks, the book is a good one. It is written in a genial spirit and a simple style, while it contains a good deal of information which, to most readers will be new and interesting.



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In Java it would appear that Mynheer contrives to make his life very enjoyable. He rises at five, lights his cigar, and sallies forth to "eat the wind," as the natives say; returns at seven, has coffee, eggs, and cold meat, and smokes again. He then takes his bath—buckets of cold water thrown over his head—dresses in a light suit and goes to his Kantor, or house of business. Returns at twelve to breakfast, as he calls it, at which he enjoys rice, currie, and all the varied delicacies of the East. The siesta follows, on awaking from which one boy appears with cigar-box and lighted Chinese joss-stick, and another with a tray, on which is a cup of tea and some cakes. Another "delicious cold bath" follows the smoke; after which our Dutchman dresses for the evening, and, cigar in mouth and stick in hand, strolls forth bareheaded—nobody wears hats but when they go to church on Sundays—to sniff the cool evening air. Having returned from his promenade, he partakes of orange bitters diluted in Hollands as a stimulus to the appetite, has another weed, sits down to dinner, which is followed by cups of excellent Java coffee—which, it seems, often changes its name to "Mocha" on coming to this country, doubtless from improved notions of euphony—and, sitting at table but a short while after the ladies retire, he adjourns to the drawing-room, which always opens on a verandah, where, unchidden by the fair sex, he puffs his cigar vigorously, and the evening passes away enlivened by music, chit-chat, and other pleasant amenities.

Leaving Batavia, our author proceeded by steamer to Samarang, which he fully describes, and from thence to Surabaya. Here he picked up a hint for our sanitary reformers.

One great want at Surabaya was the paucity of public gardens; and those who had been cooped up in some heated office all day were compelled by necessity to take the cool evening air on the roads about the town. A short time previous to our visit the Surabayans were gratified by seeing this want supplied. A whole village was razed to the ground, and the space, probably from twelve to fifteen acres when cleared of the rubbish, was laid out in walks, by-paths, lawns, and flower-beds, which, together with the old trees that had been left standing, soon assumed the appearance of a beautiful garden, with a river running on one side of it to enhance the cheerful beauty of the place. This work had been accomplished by two gentlemen, residents in Surabaya, who obtained permission of the municipal authorities to carry out their scheme on condition that suitable dwellings should be provided for the villagers, and that, if it proved a failure, a new village should be erected where the former one had stood, and that solely at their own expense. . . . We were agreeably surprised on visiting it to find how much had been made of such a limited space. Shrubberies, ponds, aviaries, were to be seen in all directions; suspended from the trees were perches with bright-coloured parrots sheltered under parasols of tin, gaudily painted, to protect them from the sun; and by the side of these were wire baskets of fragrant orchids. When I was told what this place had been a year ago I seemed to realize the Arab tale of Sheddad's garden springing from a desert.

Mr. D'Almeida gives a very interesting description of the *Dasan*, or Sand Sea, in the interior of the island, and of the Bromok, a still active volcano resorted to by an annual tide of pilgrims. Arrived at the foot of the rude flight of steps conducting to the ridge, he says:—

The ground on which we now stood seemed literally to tremble under us, and the noise of the crater was quite terrific. The smoke, forcing its way through large apertures in the sides, made a hoarse grumbling sound like that of an impatient steam-engine, and sulphureous odours impregnated the air, almost choking us. We ascended the rough steps and soon gained the ridge, where a new sight struck us with wonder and amazement. The crater, when we looked down into its dreadful abyss, seemed a perfect pandemonium; and one could well fancy, on beholding a spectacle so grand and appalling, what must have been the conjectures suggested to the minds of ignorant, superstitious natives. What more probable than that they should regard the sounds issuing from its profound depths as the shrieks, yells, and groans of a multitude of discontented spirits,

calling in misery to be delivered from the prison-house in which they were suffering unutterable torments? The crater of the volcano is like a large basin, about 350 feet in diameter, sloping gradually to a depth of fully 200 feet. From a large aperture in the centre issued dense volumes of smoke, completely hiding everything beyond from view. Enormous cakes of a red substance, like baked mud, were to be seen on or near the ridge, some of which I took up, hoping it would prove to be lava; but it all crumbled away in my fingers, leaving only a handful of powder.

Our traveller paid a second visit to the Bromok on the following morning, to witness the grand annual ceremony of the *Slamatan Bromok*—i.e., the blessing or worshipping of the volcano—and found the desolate scene of the preceding day now as gay as a fair, multitudes of gaily-dressed pilgrims having come to cast their gifts and offerings into the crater of the Bromok. Of this exciting scene he gives a lively description. This, as well as his adventures with wild boars and alligators, we must pass over. A visit to a Javanese bride and bridegroom leads to the following account of their marriage customs, which we give for the benefit of "parties about to marry:—"

"I questioned Drahman concerning Japanese weddings and courtings, and was surprised to learn that the man and woman we had just seen were not yet married, though, according to the rites of the Mahomedan creed, they had been legally allied for nearly a whole week. The young couple were as yet only passing through a probational period, during which they live apart. Among the princes and the wealthy this separation sometimes continues three months, during which time the bridegroom meets his bride every afternoon in the presence of a number of friends invited on such occasions, for whose entertainment music is provided. When food is set before them, it is the duty of the *sposo* to feed his *sposa* with rice before all the people. All goes on merrily till midnight, when the bridegroom conducts his bride to her bed, drawing the curtains aside and assisting her in. When he has seen her comfortably settled he closes the curtains and tucks them in, so as to exclude the mosquitoes; after which, retiring with the guests, he is not permitted to see his bride again till the middle of the next day."

By this plan the young people have some time for a novel kind of courtship; and, should either party feel dissatisfied, the Imam, or high-priest, can divorce them while still in the position of eligible youth and maiden. If the objection, however, exists solely on the part of the woman, though ever so valid and cogent, her countrymen ungallantly make her refund all expenses connected with the betrothal festivities. Evidently these Javanese need to be enlightened by a "Rights of Women Association." While on this subject, we must give our readers Mrs. D'Almeida's description of the seraglio of a Javanese sultan:—

In a low kind of bungalow, some distance from the main building, not, however, so far off but that we could distinctly hear the sounds of music and mirth from the joyous scene we had just left, were assembled several women, mostly very young, and all dressed in a costly native fashion. Some of the party were playing a Chinese game of cards. All looked up on our entrance, but soon resumed their occupation, alternately playing, chewing tobacco, betel, and seri-leaf, and using their spittoons, one of which was placed by the side of each person. Most of them were good-looking, with magnificent dark eyes, drooping lids, and long curling lashes. They make use of an immense quantity of powder, which, though very glaring, probably tends to heighten their charms. Their hair was dressed with care, being all drawn back from the face and arranged in two loops behind, in which chumpaka or moloa flowers were inserted by some, while others wore diamond pins. The ear was made unnaturally large by immense ear-rings, in shape exactly like a small cotton reel about the size of Clarke's number sixty, the centre of each end being studded with brilliants. . . . The beauty of the Javanese is spoilt by the prevalence of bad noses. It is very rarely one comes across a good nose; but, when that feature is perfect, the face is usually pretty, provided always the mouth is kept close; for, from the constant use of seri-gambier, tobacco, &c., their teeth are very black. This, unfor-

tunately, is considered a beauty. In children of thirteen or fourteen you frequently see beautiful teeth like rows of pearls either undergoing, or about to undergo, this disfiguring process.

One young girl of the group attracted Mrs. D'Almeida's notice by her thoughtful, silent, sad appearance; but most of them looked cheerful and happy, and it would appear that they are generally content with their lot.

Before leaving Batavia for Singapore Mr. D'Almeida had an interview with Raden Saleh, a Javanese amateur artist who spoke French, German, and English, having spent twenty-three years in Europe and been educated at the expense of the Dutch Government. While in Europe he had had several interviews with our late Prince Consort, who commissioned him to paint two subjects relating to Javanese life and scenery. Of the Prince he spoke in high terms. In the studio were two large subjects all but finished which pleased our author very much, and from his description of them seem to have been really good. In answer to the inquiry whether there were any other Javanese artists who had attained proficiency, he said he did not know, adding humorously, "Café et sucre, sucre et café, sont tout ce qu'on parle ici. C'est vraiment un air triste pour un artiste."

We must now part from our author, thanking him for adding to our stock of information regarding a country which deserves to be better known than it is, and saying to him as he says to his book—"Slamat jalan—Happy journey!"

## BOOKS FOR YOUNG READERS.

*Noble Dames of Ancient Story.* By J. E. Edgar. With Illustrations. (Hogg and Sons.)

*The Memoirs of an Arm-Chair.* Edited by the Author of "Margaret Stourton," &c., &c. (Masters.)

*The Cliff-Climbers.* By Captain Mayne Reid. With Eight Illustrations by L'Huard. (Ward and Lock.)

*The Poachers.* A Tale. By the Rev. E. H. MacLachlan, M.A. Second Edition. (J. H. and J. Parker.)

*More Stories.* By Julia Goddard, author of "Karl and the Six Little Dwarfs." (Hall, Smart, and Allen.)

*Harry's Help.* By Mrs. S. C. Rochat. (Masters.)

WHILE dismal railway-bridges are defacing our street scenery with that ruthless disregard of the picturesque peculiar to all companies, railway-stations and hotels are rising like palatial dwellings to adorn our crowded thoroughfares and give the space and light and air which London so greatly needs. The murky colonnades of Hungerford Market have given place to a building that puts the old Golden Cross, with its meek façade and surroundings, into the shade, and bids fair to rival in extent the ducal residence which it already overlooks. Moreover, we are arrested on our way and compelled to brush up our memories of school-days and school-books, to dip into Hume or Goldsmith, and, finding nothing there, to rush to other sources to understand the meaning of the elegant structure which the good-taste of the railway-company is erecting in that grand opening in the Strand which their enterprising speculations have so recently effected. Queen Eleanor's Cross carries us back into that period of England's history when the fine character of our first Edward was marked by his costly tributes of affection to his beautiful queen and most faithful wife; and, but for those stone-books which remain at Geddington, Northampton, and Waltham, the record of his sorrowful journey from Hasley to Westminster might have passed away, and the memory of a woman's gentle influence, which doubtless gave lustre to the virtues of this warlike prince, tempering power with mercy, would have been lost to us for ever. In this age of scientific wonders it is quite refreshing to be carried back to some six hundred years ago, and, as one is whirled by the railway of to-day over the Thames, and in among the house-



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tops of Southwark, to think of the "Noble Dames of Ancient Story," for the memory of whom Mr. Edgar, in his book, the title of which stands first upon our list, says he "has endeavoured to do something by popularizing the history of the fourteenth century in giving an account of the royal and noble ladies who then flourished."

We are tempted to regret that the author should have omitted the life of Eleanor of Castile, or rather that he should have limited himself so strictly to the one hundred years of "Ancient Story," commencing with the marriage of Isabel the Fair and Edward the Second, in the cathedral of Boulogne in 1308, and closing the book with the death of "Valentine, Duchess of Orleans, in 1408."

The fourteenth century was remarkable as being a period of transition, less disturbed by causes of violent excitement, and consequently more susceptible of those changes in the elements of society which bring about new and salutary results. Of learning there was but little, and that mostly confined to religious houses. Free from religious persecution, religious enthusiasm had died out; for the Church, divided by the rival claims of Urban and Clement, little heeded by royalty and hardly respected by the people, could no longer arouse the world to arms as in the days of the great Crusades. In proof whereof the futile efforts of the young king to prosecute the holy war were quickly merged in the need of government at home, of which the story of "Isabel the Fair" gives a good idea. This is followed by "Philippa of Hainault"—a life of great interest and full of romantic incident; for the queen of our third Edward, by her tact and good sense, won the affections of her husband's subjects, "although the people complained loudly that money, voted to carry on the Scottish war, had been spent in marriage festivities at York."

Edward, just emancipated from the yoke of Mortimer and his mother, in June 1330, shortly after the birth of the Prince of Wales, destined, as the Black Prince, to become the pride of the land and the terror of her foes, had proclaimed a tournament to be held in Cheape, in September of the following year, to celebrate the joyful event. This great market-place was the broadest and most noble street in London of that day. At the west end, where the statue of Sir Robert Peel now stands, was the beautiful church of St. Michael, the Querne, or at-the-Corne, so called because close to it was the original corn-market. The market was afterwards removed quite to the other end of the street; and at the east end of the church, opposite the fine old timber houses from which Wood Street took its name, was the beautiful cross erected by Edward the First to mark the last resting-place but one of the body of Queen Eleanor ere it was buried in the Abbey at Westminster.

"In the reign of Edward the Third," says Stow, "divers joustings were made in the street betwixt Soper's-lane and the Great Cross—namely, one in the year 1331, the 21st of September, as I find noted by divers writers of that time. In the middle of the city of London (say they), in a street called Cheape, the stone pavement being covered with sand that the horses might not slide when they strongly set their feet to the ground, the king held a tournament three days together with the nobility, valiant men of the realm, and other strange knights. And, to the end the beholders might with the better ease see the same, there was a wooden scaffold erected across the street, like unto a tower, wherein Queen Philippa and many other ladies, richly attired, and assembled from all parts of the realm, did stand to behold the jousts; but the higher frame in which the ladies were placed brake in sunder, whereby they were with some shame forced to fall down, by reason whereof the knights and such as were underneath were grievously hurt; wherefore the queen took great care to save the carpenters from punishment, and through her prayers (which she made upon her knees) pacified the king and council, and thereby purchased great love of the people. After this time the king caused a shed to be strongly made of stone, for himself, the queen, and other estates to stand

on, and there to behold the joustings and other shows at their pleasure, by the church of St. Mary Bow."

This structure was known as the Seldam, or shed, and, being built on arches, in the cloister below was held the court of the Archbishop of Canterbury, named hence the Court of Arches. To this day royalty claims the right to view pageants and processions passing through Cheapside from Bow Church; and the stone balcony from the tower is the successor of this old Seldam. In Hogarth's plate of the Lord Mayor's pageant in "Industry and Idleness," Frederick, Prince of Wales, the great-grandfather of her Majesty, and the Princess of Wales are represented as occupying the balcony.

No doubt can be entertained that the scene at the tournament in Cheapside tended to make Philippa popular in England; and about the same time the young queen, probably at the suggestion of her mother, set her heart on a scheme for enriching the country, which would, of itself, have sufficed to render the reign memorable in England's annals.

This scheme was the introduction of seventy Walloon families for the manufacture of woollen cloth. The raw native produce having been hitherto chiefly exported to Flanders, the Flemings were enriched at our expense. The town of Worstead, in Norfolk, had been long famous for "worsted stuff;" but the queen's energy and successful patronage secured to the country prosperity and wealth in this new branch of industry. Then we have the institution of the Order of the Garter, "in imitation of King Arthur's Round Table," and Edward's romantic admiration of the beautiful and virtuous Catharine of Salisbury, together with Froissart's quaint recital of the surrender of Calais, which elicits Mr. Edgar's very natural remark that—

It is impossible to believe that Edward, who was a generous prince, really intended to execute the six Calesians; and the scene which was enacted by Sir Walter Manny, the king, and queen, in presence of the knights and squires, was such as to lead to the conclusion that it was got up to give Philippa an opportunity of playing the part of intercessor.

Mr. Edgar's volume comprises thirteen of these annals, taken mostly, as the author states, from Froissart and Dugdale, and, besides those already named, contains the histories of "Katherine, Countess of Salisbury;" "Joan, Countess of Montfort;" "Agnes, Countess of Dunbar;" "Agnes, Countess of Foix;" "Joan Plantagenet, Princess of Wales;" "Florence of Biscay;" "Isabel Plantagenet, Countess of Bedford;" "Leonora d'Acunha, Queen of Portugal;" "Constance of Castille, Duchess of Lancaster;" "Isabel of Bavaria, Queen of France;" and "Valentine Visconti, Duchess of Orleans." To this list Mr. Edgar might have added the history of Tiphaine Ravenel had he read the "Life and Times of Bertrand du Guesclin," or have substituted it, if space did not permit, for the somewhat uninteresting story of Florence of Biscay. The great Constable of France plays such an important part in the fourteenth century that the tender devotion of his wife—"that fair girl, the wisest that was in France"—deserves such honourable mention as is awarded to less accomplished "Noble Dames;" and it is pleasant to read, in the "Histoire de Bretagne," that, all brave and terrible as the knight was in battle, "he was forced to turn aside and indulge his own bitter private griefs, amidst the general rejoicings of his countrymen for the success of his arms," because of the death of that "fair maid of Dinan" whom he had wooed and won whilst he was an humble adventurer. She who had so long participated in all his joys and sorrows, who had sympathized in his misfortunes and enjoyed his triumphs, who had seen him rise step by step from a low estate to the highest position under the king in the realm, was now no more." We cordially hope with Mr. Edgar that his "sketches may not be altogether uninteresting to English readers

as relating to the European history of that period." The subject is suggestive, and the field of inquiry a wide one; and every book that proves of service in rescuing from oblivion the memory of persons whose lives have influenced the "histories" of countries does good to society, for the landmarks of the past are fast disappearing in the accidents of daily events.

Even the "biography," so to speak, of an ancient piece of furniture may not be without its "interesting situations;" hence we have the "Memoirs of an Old Arm-Chair"—from the painful moment when the pride of the forest was felled, and its heart was "shaped into a very peculiar form," in the time of Charles the First, until, made valuable by age, the chair is "restored" and placed as an "antique" for a bishop's use on the consecration of a new church in our own day.

Of "The Cliff-Climbers," or rather the adventures of the plant-hunters and their native attendant Oparoo, together with Fritz, "a large dog of the boar-hound species," in the Himalayas, Captain Mayne Reid has a host of wonderful things to tell. How the two young Germans, Karl and Caspar Linden, are employed to collect specimens for the Royal Botanical Gardens at Calcutta—how the party enter a glen in "pursuit of a beautiful little animal—a musk-deer"—through a gully formed by a glacier, and, following the ravine, arrive at "a singular crater-like valley, from which they cannot escape, by reason of a terrible crevasse in the glacier," which had opened during their absence—it is not for us to speak. The book alone can relate the devices and ingenuity of these desperate men; but there is a curious coincidence in the character given of the elephant by two gentlemen of somewhat similar names, which is remarkable as being opposed to the universal belief in the amiability and gentle bearing of those sagacious animals.

In Mr. Charles Reade's "Cream" the history of that celebrated "Mademoiselle Djek" of Adelphi celebrity is given at some length, and startles one by its statements of the creature's hatred of her keepers and cruel reprisals. The "Rogue" elephant of Captain Reid is an embodiment of everything that is malicious, malignant, and ferocious—so terrible, indeed, that one cannot but hope that such a vindictive brute is not common to the herd, out of which, our author says, "for some reason or other—perhaps for bad behaviour—he had had the cold shoulder given him by the rest of the herd," and thus, "cut by his former acquaintance," is "compelled to lead a solitary life," the consequence of which is revenge to all in its path. If a tamed animal like "Mademoiselle Djek" and the wild "Rogue" of the Himalayas exhibit the same characteristics, our laudations with regard to the generosity of the animal's temper are simply a mistake. Many of our preconceived notions are forced to give way before the spirit of inquiry that is abroad; we should be glad to know if this one in particular is an error. The book is nicely illustrated, and contains much varied information.

"The Poachers" is a tale of village-life, showing the evil of bad counsellors and of tampering with temptation. Having reached a second edition, its usefulness, we hope, will be as widely spread as it deserves. Then we have "More Stories" the scenes of which are laid in Germany, as was Miss Goddard's former pretty book about "Karl and the Six Little Dwarfs." These six legends are short and pleasantly told, with a quaint vein of humour running through them, and have each a good moral. As fairy tales they are charming—just, in fact, what fairy tales should be—bright, yet touching, poetic, and impossible.

"Harry's Help" also merits a "good word" from us; and, if young people will only profit by the teaching which is now made so attractive to them, our present system of instruction will surely bear a harvest worthy of the sowers.



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## NOTICES.

**Robson.** By George Augustus Sala. (Hotten.)—THIS is a reprint of Mr. Sala's sketch of Robson which appeared some time back in the *Atlantic Monthly*. To it Mr. Hotten has prefixed some memoranda and extracts from the London papers since his death. From this portion we quote the following sketch of Mr. Robson's youth:—"When he was fifteen years old, one Thomas Robson Brownbill, a little boy from Margate, was apprenticed to Mr. Smellie the copper-plate engraver, and well-known printer of Mr. George Cruikshank's humorous plates. Master Brownbill's friends had found him crazy after the stage as other urchins sometimes are after a sea-life. Various professions, less romantic, but conceived to be more respectable, were mentioned to him; but, with the exception of the graver's art, he would not listen to any one of them. This he thought he might like; so his mother resolved to try him. The lad soon became an immense favourite with his master and the workmen, and they familiarly nick-named him 'Bill,' 'little Bill,' a sort of jocular shortening of his surname, Brownbill—for he was not known as Robson until some years later, when he adopted a christian name as his theatrical title, adding Frederick, which he considered decidedly stylish and quite out of the common—a custom not very unusual, I believe, with other ladies and gentlemen of his profession. I met one of the workmen the day after his death, and told him of his old comrade's departure, 'What? little Bill gone!' he said. 'Ah! he was a merry lad; but he had better-by-half 'a stuck to the bench.' . . . Although the days were occupied over the graver, the nights were almost as regularly spent on the two or three amateur stages which were then to be met with in this neighbourhood. The youth, however, never shirked work for play; and his master used to say that there was not a man or boy in his shop who was so regular in the morning's attendance as 'little Brownbill.' At this time he lived with his mother—his father had been dead many years—in Henry Street, Vauxhall; so that he had some distance to walk daily. He was bound for seven years, but only stopped four with his master. . . . An unforeseen circumstance happening, the now skilful engraver and amateur theatrical found himself at nineteen out of his time and his own master. . . . His master gave up business and removed to Scotland; and the amateur theatrical, finding himself free, very wisely conceived that a little business might be formed out of the old customers that Mr. Smellie had abandoned. Mr. Robson Brownbill now took a shop in Brydges Street, Covent Garden; and here he carried on business as a 'master' engraver for twelve months. During the whole of this time he continued to take part in amateur performances; and a favourite song, both with himself and his audiences, was 'Lord Lovel'—generally sung in character. Finally, one morning, his neighbours in Brydges Street observed, by a piece of paper attached to the shutters of Mr. Brownbill's shop, that business had been relinquished. The engraver had taken home his tools to keep as curiosities, and had accepted the offer of a country manager. From that time to the present he has been before a public—one at first small and provincial, but latterly large and metropolitan—as Frederick Robson."

**Theory of Legislation.** By Jeremy Bentham. Translated from the French of Etienne Dumont by R. Hildreth. (Triibner & Co. Pp. 472.)—THOUGH endowed with a great genius for investigation, Bentham's powers of exposition were rather of a sober kind. "During a long life," says the preface, "devoted solely and assiduously to the study of jurisprudence, he produced, besides his occasional publications, an immense mass of manuscripts, containing a fund of most valuable ideas, but unshaped, unarranged, and in a state quite unfit for publication. Fortunately for the cause of science these materials were not left to perish; an interpreter, a compiler, a spokesman was found in every way worthy of the task he assumed." This man was Etienne Dumont, a citizen of Geneva, whom political troubles had driven from his country. Under the patronage of the Lansdowne family he came to London, and very soon became the intimate friend and loved disciple of the great philosopher. It was his custom to examine and study the manuscript treatises of Bentham; "and, having discovered the value of this hidden treasure, he solicited the task of arranging, condensing, filling-out, compiling, and

translating into the French language." "Among Dumont's first publications from the manuscripts of Bentham," says the preface in another place, "was the treatise of which these volumes contain a translation; and it is only in these compilations that we find anything like a clear and complete development of the ideas of Bentham, or a full exposition of his system of legislation." To the translation of the work Mr. Hildreth has given much loving labour; and so easy and idiomatic is his style that the reader would never dream that the "Theory of Legislation" comes to him through a foreign medium. So important is this work considered by the Crown that an acquaintance with it is a necessary qualification for passing the Civil Class Examination for India.

**The Principles of Spiritualists exposed, and the Phenomena exhibited by Spiritualism explained.** In Two Lectures delivered in the United States in the Year 1859. (Hamilton, Adams, & Co. Pp. 50.)—THE author does not dispute the phenomena with which we are all so familiar, and which spiritualists adduce as evidence of the agency of disembodied spirits, but looks upon the whole thing as proceeding from natural causes. The lectures are not very satisfactory or conclusive, and the pith of his argument seems to be that "the absurdities of spiritualism are too gross to be credible."

**First Lessons on the English Reformation.** For Schools. By B. B. Woodward, B.A., F.S.A. Second Edition, revised. (Ward & Co. Pp. 100.)—"THESE first lessons on the English Reformation have been prepared with the especial object of showing, in a way suited to the understanding of children at school, how this country was delivered from the power of the Pope." They do not, however, enter into any of the difficult ecclesiastical and doctrinal questions of the period. "All important dates are inserted in the margin, and questions for examination are appended to each chapter."

**The Principles of Agriculture.** By William Bland, M.R.A.S., author of "Principles of Construction in Arches, Piers, Buttresses," &c. Second Edition. (Longman & Co. Pp. 127.)—THE author attempts, and that very successfully, to explain "the causes of the improvement of land, proceeding either from fallowing, manuring, laying down to pasture, variation of crops, draining, and irrigation." The last two chapters contain very valuable "hints to young agriculturists" and equally important "hints to landlords on their leases." The book is written in a scientific spirit, and will form an admirable companion to the one on "Agricultural Education," issued by the same publishers, and noticed by us some time ago with high commendation.

**Walker and Webster combined in a Dictionary of the English Language, &c., &c.** By John Longmuir, LL.D. (Tegg.)—THIS is a very useful dictionary for school-room or counting-house, no less than for the library-table. Dr. Longmuir has used the dictionaries of Walker and Webster, but never sacrificed his own opinions to either. Thus, for instance, *asparagus* is no longer dish-up, as in all previous editions of Walker's Dictionary, as "*grass*," or "*sparrow-grass*;" *cucumber* is simply given with the rival pronunciations of *ku* and *kow*; and the editor does not go out of his way to tell us that *errata* is the plural of *erratum*, as his predecessor did. So, too, the meanings of the words have been carefully revised wherever there was need; and great attention has been bestowed in marking distinctly the relative value of synonyms. Of these a separate table of eight closely-printed pages is prefixed to the general dictionary; and other useful tables of the pronunciation of various proper names in different languages, of Latin proverbs, &c., are added by way of appendix.

**Johnson's Dictionary.** By Dr. Latham. (Longman & Co.)—PART V. (*Burthen—Cheapness*) includes an exhaustive article on the word "BUT," and many new words, chiefly scientific and technical, which have not yet found their way into our dictionaries. As a general dictionary for popular use, Dr. Latham's edition of Johnson's Dictionary promises to be one of the most useful and trustworthy yet published.

WE have received from Messrs. A. Ireland & Co. of Manchester Part I. of *Proceedings of the Manchester Numismatic Society*. Wood-engraving and photography are used liberally in the illustrations; and, if the men of Manchester go on with their new publication as spiritedly as they have begun, the proceedings of their Numismatic Society will be welcomed and read by every numismatist in the land.

**Mr. Gladstone, the Times, and Democracy,** by Vindex, is the name of a pamphlet, published by

Mr. Ridgway, full of earnestness and patriotism. Vindex is himself a "thunderer," and on the side of freedom and progress.

## MAGAZINES AND SERIALS.

*Fraser* opens this month with an article on Dr. Newman's "Apologia," in which the writer avers that Mr. Kingsley is right upon the main questions at issue, and charges Dr. Newman with "intellectual dishonesty." The article discusses, with much force and ability, Dr. Newman's mental characteristics, and endeavours to show that he has "put the whole subject of the existence of God on a false footing." Among other contributions in this number are Mr. Ottley's "Notes on Diplomacy and Diplomatic History," Part II.; "Public Schools—Report of the Commission"—a fairly good essay, but one which will not bear comparison with the masterly treatment of the same subject in *Blackwood*; the continuation of "Gilbert Rugge;" three poems as good, or rather as bad, as most of our "occasional verses;" "The Philosophy of the Poor Laws, and the Report of the Committee on Poor Relief," by Miss Cobbe; and a second portion of "The Parish Priest," describing, in a picturesque, racy style, the duties of "The Priest in the Parish." The essay is in every respect admirable, both for the manner in which it is written and for the thoughts which it contains.

*Blackwood*, like *Fraser*, has an article on the Kingsley and Newman controversy, in which Mr. Kingsley's conduct is severely, if not ungenerously, criticized; while Dr. Newman, who is said "to extinguish Mr. Kingsley as a logician," is treated with much respect and sympathy. Neither of the articles to which we have referred question in the slightest degree Dr. Newman's moral integrity and good faith. An able article entitled "The Alphabeticals" treats in readable fashion of dictionaries, encyclopædias, indexes, &c. The writer says, and we agree with him, "There is a set of books that ought to be positively drummed out of literature. These are they which profess to supply quotations ready selected and ranged in alphabetical order." "The City of Gold," in which the mysteries of the Bank and of the Stock Exchange are skilfully unveiled, will be read with pleasure by those who do not know London, as well as by those who do—by men who have never visited Capel Court, as well as by men who are accustomed to frequent it. For the rest, the present number of *Blackwood*—which, by the way, contains no political article—gives us the conclusion of "The Perpetual Curate," part twelve of "Tony Butler," part eight of "Cornelius O'Dowd upon Men and Women, and other Things in General," and number three of "Letters from the Principalities."

*Macmillan's* first article is "On the Language and Poetry of Schleswig-Holstein," by Professor Max Müller—viewed, of course, from the writer's peculiar stand-point. The political bearings of the essay render it, however, none the less acceptable. It is, we need scarcely say, charmingly written. "An Essay on Girls' Schools," by Archibald MacLaren, should be placed in the hands of every schoolmistress. Nothing in the present day is neglected at girls' schools except health; but many of the evils of which the writer complains are endured by all girls alike, whether at school or at home. Mr. MacLaren observes that every change in female attire must now be for the better; yet, on account of health, as for other reasons, he objects to crinoline, which has not been many years in existence. The editor, in the present number, continues his recollections of Dr. Chalmers, and promises to resume the subject in the next magazine.

WE suspect that the pages of the *Cornhill* will open most readily this month on an article entitled "Partridge-Shooting," the writer of which shows that the sport conduces but little to the worst kind of poaching; that it is far better exercise than cover-shooting, and calls more faculties into play; that it does no harm to the crops of the farmer; and that, in short, it confers a general benefit. It is doubtful whether the birds themselves, if they have leisure this month to consider the subject, will be able to appreciate the force of these arguments. Another interesting paper, "The French at the Alma," compares the narrative of Mr. Kinglake with the statement of General Todleben, somewhat to the disadvantage of the member for Bridgwater. Copious extracts are given from the work of the Russian historian. An announcement states that "Margaret Denzil's History" will be concluded in the next number of the *Cornhill*, and that Mr. Wilkie Collins's new tale will commence in November.



# THE READER.

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THE *Eclectic* has, among its articles, one devoted to Archbishop Whately, one on About's work on Progress, another entitled "A Sheet of Criticism on some Recent Volumes of Verselets," and one on "Darbyism and Lay-Predaching in Ireland."

THE *Fisherman's Magazine* is now six months old, and exhibits every appearance of vitality. "A Chat on Fishing, and Where to Go for It," opens the current number; then follow "My First Salmon," "Open Fishings in the Highlands," &c. An important feature of the journal is the "Fishing Record of the Month."

Temple Bar opens with the twenty-sixth chapter of "The Doctor's Wife;" and the story progresses to the "First Whisper of the Storm," in the twenty-ninth. That whisper is of things which happened before the doctor's wife had gone down into Midlandshire, and for which the reader, no doubt, has long been prepared. Mr. Sala has a pleasant paper on the "Streets of Boulogne;" and Messrs. Yates and Byron continue—the first "Broken to Harness," and the other "Paid in Full." Altogether the September number of the magazine is a good one.—The *Victoria Magazine*—about an average number—has an interesting article on the training and employment of educated women, under the head of "The Queen's Institute, Dublin," and the late Mr. Nassau W. Senior's "Journal kept in Egypt."—The *British Army and Navy Review* treats of the "Breed of Horses and the British Army," and gives the third chapter of Captain Chesney's "Lee's Second Year of Campaigns in Defence of Richmond—Gettysburg."

St. James's Magazine, in which the new novel, "Only a Clod," by the author of "Lady Audley's Secret," reaches chapter eight; "The Adventures of a Queen's Messenger," chapter six; and "The Dipplebury Scandal," chapter fourteen. The paper which will interest most is the one on "Hydrophobia," by Dr. Scofield. It is humiliating to find how little as yet we know of this strange disease, and how utterly impotent are our most skilled physicians when once the disease has fairly set in.—In *London Society* we have two beautiful illustrations by Miss Ellen Edwards, one by W. L. Thomas, one by "Phiz," and one by Millais, which of themselves are worth far more than the price of the magazine. The opening article, "Miss Middlesex on the Moors," is very readable and full of humour.—The *Churchman's Family Magazine* has for artist Miss Florence Claxton, who is of herself a tower of strength. A capital likeness of the Dean of Westminster is prefixed to the memoir, which is laudatory, but at the same time temperately and well written.—*Good Words* is up to its usual high mark, and is notable this month for an illustration from the pencil of Arthur Hughes. It represents "The Women at the Sepulchre."

THE *Month* contains the continuation of Lady Georgiana Fullerton's story of "Constance Sherwood" and "The Ancient Saints of God," a kind of apologetical story by Cardinal Wiseman.

Our *Mutual Friend* this month gets installed into his office of "Secretary to Mr. Boffin;" Mrs. Boffin finds an "orphan;" and "Lawyer Lightwood, Mr. Inspector, and the 'Honest Man'" haul in a dead 'Bird of Prey.' The Union House and its comforts are floated to the surface, and the miseries of suddenly coming into large property duly regarded. "Our Mutual Friend" deserves a cordial welcome.

We have also received the following:—*Christian Work: a Magazine of Religious and Missionary Information*; *Our Own Fireside: a Magazine of Home Literature*, edited by the Rev. Charles Bullock; the *Sixpenny Magazine*; and Routledge's *Every Boy's Magazine*, illustrated. From Messrs. S. O. Beeton & Co. we have the following illustrated works:—the *Boy's Own Magazine*, the *Boy's Monthly Magazine*, and the *Englishwoman's Domestic Magazine*, with plates of fashions and patterns. Further, we have received No. 8 of the *Art Student*; Part 8 of *Chambers's Journal*, in which the author of "Lost Sir Massingberd" commences a new tale, "Married Beneath Him;" the first number of *The Orator*, selections from celebrated speeches; No. 53 of the *Magnet Stories*; Part 4 of Henry Ward Beecher's *Sermons*; and, from Mr. Abel Heywood of Manchester, three of his very clever *Penny Guide-Books*—"Blackpool and Fleetwood," "Alderley Edge," and "Durham Park, Altrincham, Bowdon, and Rostherne." Messrs. Cassell, Petter, and Galpin send us the following, which, with the exception of the first-named, are all admirably illustrated:—the *Quiver*, *Cassell's Popular Educator*, *Cassell's Illustrated Family Paper*, *Cassell's Illustrated Robinson Crusoe*, *Cassell's Illustrated Shakespeare*, *Cassell's Illustrated Bunyan*, *Cassell's*

*Illustrated History of England*, *Cassell's Bible Dictionary*, *Cassell's Popular Natural History*, *Cassell's Illustrated Goldsmith*, and the new issue of the *Illustrated Bible*.

## PUBLICATIONS OF THE WEEK.

- ATLAS. Heywood's Pocket Atlas. Twenty Maps. Coloured. 12mo. Manchester: John Heywood, Simpkin. 2s.
- BERRIDON (Rev. John, A.M.) Whole Works. With a Memoir of his Life by the Rev. Richard Whittingham. Second Edition, with Additions. With Portrait. Cr. 8vo., pp. 632. Palmer. 6s.
- BONOMI AND SHARPE. The Alabaster Sarcophagus of Omenephthah, 1st King of Egypt. Drawn by J. Bonomi, and described by Samuel Sharpe. 4to. Longman. 15s.
- BRADSHAW'S ILLUSTRATED GUIDE THROUGH PARIS AND ITS ENVIRONS. Revised and Corrected by J. M. Philip. 1864 Edition. 16mo., pp. 93. Adams. 5s. 6d.; cl. 5s. 1s. 6d. with illustrations, 2s. 6d.
- CATECHIST (The): or, Questions to Try whether Children repeat the Catechism merely by rote; and to impress the Sense of it on their Minds. For use in Schools and Churches, at Confirmation Lectures, and at Home. Cr. 8vo., cl. 5s., pp. 60. Wright. 1s. 6d.
- CHARLESWORTH (Maria L.) Ministering Children: a Tale. Eighty-first Thousand. Fcap. 8vo., cl. 5s. Seeley. 2s. 6d.
- CHRIST. The Life of our Blessed Saviour: an Epitome of the Gospel Narrative, arranged in order of time from the latest harmonies. With Introduction and Notes. By the Rev. J. Gregory Smith, M.A. Sq. 12mo., cl. 5s., pp. 42. Rivingtons. 2s.
- DANA (James D., A.M.) Manual of Mineralogy. New Edition, revised. Cr. 8vo., pp. 456. Triebner. 7s. 6d.
- DAVYS (George, D.D.) Plain and Short History of England for Children; in Letters from a Father to his Son. With a Set of Questions at the end of each Letter. Fourteenth Edition. 18mo., hf. bd., pp. 262. Rivingtons. 1s. 6d.
- DOUDNEY (Rev. D. A.) Bible Lives and Bible Lessons; or, Gleanings from the Book of Genesis. Cr. 8vo., pp. 392. Collingridge. 4s. 6d.
- DRYDEN (John). Poems. Vol. 1. (Bell's English Poets. Reissue.) Fcap. 8vo., pp. 209. Griffin. 5s. 6d.; cl. 5s. 6d.
- FOE ON THE HEARTH (The). A Novel. Three Volumes. Post 8vo. Newby. 31s. 6d.
- GOULBURN (Edward, D.D.) Idle Word: Short Religious Essays upon the Gift of Speech and its Employment in Conversation. Third Edition. Fcap. 8vo., pp. 160. Rivingtons. 3s.
- GOULBURN (Edward Meyrick, D.D.) Office of the Holy Communion in the Book of Common Prayer; a Series of Lectures delivered in the Church of St. John the Evangelist, Paddington. Third Edition. Fcap. 8vo., pp. xxvii + 354. Rivingtons. 6s.
- HENSLEY (Lewis, M.A.) Household Devotions, or Family Prayers for the Church Seasons. Cr. 8vo., pp. 324. Bell and Daldy. 6s. 6d.
- HUNTER (Rev. John, M.A.) Progressive Exercises in Book-keeping by Double Entry: including Account States, Partnership Accounts, Private Journal and Ledger, &c. Adapted for Use in Schools. 12mo., cl. 5s., pp. iv+69. Longman. 1s. 6d.
- JAMES (G. P. R.) Novels. New Edition. The Convict. Fcap. 8vo., sd., pp. 416. Routledge. 1s.
- JONES (Henry). Key to the Standard Arithmetical Cards, containing the Answers to all the Series. 12mo., cl. 5s., pp. 24. Marby. 6d.
- KIRK (Rev. John). Mother of the Wesleys: a Biography. Second Edition. With Portrait. Cr. 8vo., pp. xxii+351. Tinsdler. 5s.
- LAUN (H. Van). French Grammar. Third Part.—Exercises. Crown 8vo. Triebner. 3s. 6d.
- LEWIS (Dio, M.D.) New Gymnastics for Families and Schools. With an Introduction by M. C. Tyler, M.C.P. Cr. 8vo., pp. 298. Tweedie. 3s. 6d.
- MURRAY'S HANDBOOK TO HEREFORD CATHEDRAL. With Fifteen Illustrations. Post 8vo., sd., pp. vi+71. Murray. 2s. 6d.
- MURRAY. The Beloved Physician: a Memoir of Peter Murray, M.D. By the Rev. B. Balgarnie. 12mo., cl. 5s. Scarborough: Theakston. Simpkin. 2s.
- MY PRETTY BOOK. Sq. 12mo., sd., pp. 32. With Coloured Illustrations. Religious Tract Society. 1s.
- NEISON (F. G. P., F.L.S.) Contributions to Vital Statistics. New Edition. 4to., pp. 630. Simpkin. 29s.
- NEWMAN (Francis W.) Text of the Iguvine Inscriptions. 8vo., sd. Triebner. 2s.
- ROYAL PICTURE GALLERY (The) of the Kings and Queens of England. From the Earliest Times to the Reign of Queen Victoria. Cr. 8vo., pp. 160. Cassell. 5s.
- SHEPHERD (Rev. G. P., M.A.) Argument of St. Paul's Epistle to the Christians in Rome. Traced and Illustrated. Vol. 2. Parts 2 and 3. 8vo., pp. viii+346. Bell and Daldy. 7s. 6d.
- STAR OF THE SOUTH (The): a Sequel to the "Black Angel." By the Author of "Hunted to Death," &c. &c. Fcap. 8vo., bds., pp. 380. Bryce. 2s.
- SWAAB (S. L.) Fibrous Substances, Indigenous and Exotic, their Nature, Varieties, and Treatment considered with a view to render them further Useful for Textile and other Purposes. 8vo., sd., pp. 56. Triebner. 2s.
- THORNTON (Cyril, M.A.) Conyers Lea; or, Sketches of Character. Cheap Edition. Cr. 8vo., bds., pp. 338. Saunders and Otley. 2s.
- THORLOPE (Mrs.) Mrs. Mathews; or, Family Mysteries. Cheap Edition. (Select Library of Fiction.) 12mo., bds., pp. 390. Chapman and Hall. 2s.
- TRÖLTSCHE (Dr. Anton von). Diseases of the Ear, their Diagnosis and Treatment. A Text-Book of Aural Surgery in the Form of Academic Lectures. Translated from the German. Edited by D. B. St. John Roosa, M.D. Illustrated. From the Second and Last German Edition. 8vo. New York. 9s.
- VIRGIL'S ÆNEID. With Notes and Vocabulary. By Dr. Kenney. Books 1, 2, 3. 18mo., cl. 5s. Longman. Each 1s.
- WALKER AND WEBSTER COMBINED IN A DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE; in which the Definitions of Webster and the Pronunciation of Walker are united and brought into Conformity to the Usage of the Present Time. By John Longmuir, A.M., LL.D. 8vo. Tegg. 5s.
- WEBSTER (Edward). Parliamentary Costs. Second Edition. Roy. 12mo. Stevens. 12s. 6d.
- WHITLEY'S SHILLING COURT DIRECTORY, AND LONDON FASHIONABLE GUIDE FOR 1864. 8vo., sd. Whitley. 1s.
- WILSON (Philip). Hunstanton and its Neighbourhood; being a Guide to the Lynn and Hunstanton Railway Line. With map. 12mo., sd., pp. 73. Lynn: Thew. 1s.
- WILTSHIRE. The Topographical Collections of John Aubrey, F.R.S. Corrected, &c., by John E. Jackson, M.A. 4to. Devices: Bull. Longman. 50s.
- WINSOM (Jane Ann). Onward; or, the Mountain Climbers. A Tale of Progress. Fifth Thousand. Fcap. 8vo. Seeley. 5s.
- WINSLOW (Rev. Octavius, D.D.) Midnight Harmonies; or, Thoughts for the Season of Solitude and Sorrow. Twentieth Thousand. Roy. 18mo. J. F. Shaw. 2s.

## JUST READY.

- BALFOUR (Mrs. C. L.) Troubled Waters. 12mo. Houlston. 5s. 6d.; cl. 5s. 6d.
- CUMWORTH HOUSE. By the Author of "Caste," &c. Three Volumes. Post 8vo. Hurst and Blackett. 31s. 6d.
- GUTHRIE (Thomas). Speaking to the Heart. Pocket Edition. Fcap. 8vo. Strahan. 1s. 6d.
- HAWTHORNE (Nathaniel). Pansie. Fcap. 8vo. Hotten. 6d.
- ROBSON; A SKETCH. By G. A. Sala. Fcap. 8vo. Hotten. 6d.
- SHAKESPEARE'S WORKS. By Rev. A. Dyce. Second Edition. Volume 4. 8vo. Chapman and Hall. 10s.

SURTEES (Rev. S. F.) Walls and Strays of North-Humber History. Post 8vo. J. E. Smith. 3s. 6d.

THOMAS (Anne). Cross of Honour. Fcap. 8vo. J. Magwell. 2s.

WHITFIELD (Rev. F.) Gleanings from Scripture. Cr. 8vo. Partridge. 3s. 6d.

## MISCELLANEA.

THE British Museum is closed to the public till the 9th inst. During the recess we understand that the Farnese collection of ancient sculptures, purchased from the king of Naples, will be arranged for public exhibition. The days of admission, till next May, will be only Monday, Wednesday, and Friday in each week. The Saturday-afternoon admission closed for the season last Wednesday.

WE alluded last week to the sale of the late Miss Katharine Southey's furniture and books at Lairbeck Cottage on the 23rd and 24th ult. Since then we have received from a correspondent some account of the sale, which took place on the lawn in front of the cottage, which commands views of lakes Derwentwater and Bassenthwaite and the mountain scenery of Under Skiddaw. The furniture occupied the first day; and, whenever it transpired that such and such articles had formerly belonged to her father at Greta Hall, the prices were somewhat slightly enhanced. The knock-out system, as the combination of bidders is called—not to bid in public against one another, but to resell the whole among themselves afterwards, and to share the profits of the re-sale—however, became so apparent on the second day, when the books and manuscripts were put up for sale, that the most interesting lots were bought in, and will probably be sold in London during the next season. Of the lots sold, a presentation copy of Wordsworth's Poetical Works, in five volumes, brought £1. 16s.; the "Essays of Elia," two volumes, presentation copy, with C. Lamb's autograph, 16s.; a one-volume Shakespeare, with Southey's autograph, 14s.; and Bacon's Essays, inscribed "R. Southey, Bristol, 1802," 11s. 6d. Nineteen of Sir Walter Scott's letters to Southey, sold separately, realized £11. 1s. 6d. One of the most interesting refers to a favourable change in Scott's prospects:—"I have been in London, pursuing Fortune's slippery ball, and have been fortunate enough, notwithstanding the change of men and measures, to secure the reversion of a considerable patent-office, which was destined for me by Mr. Pitt and Lord Melville. I venture to hope my success has given some pleasure to my friends at Greta Hall and Grasmere; it is particularly acceptable to me, as it enables me, without imprudence, or even injustice to my family, to retire from the bar, which I have always thought to be an irksome and even hateful profession." The MSS. of the first sketch of the Life of Nelson and "The Vision of Judgment" (the copy from which the poem was printed), in Southey's handwriting and handsomely bound, brought only £4. 5s. A reserved price being placed on the MS. Life of Cowper, "Pilgrimage to Waterloo," and other works of the late Laureate, they were not sold. Among the correspondence were letters from Lockhart, Wordsworth, Lamb, Clarkson, and others; but all were bought in. A few of the letters were privately disposed of, among which was one from Clarkson, dated Playford Hall, November 25th, 1834, referring to a forthcoming biography of Wilberforce by his son Robert:—"He was, I suppose, greatly surprised and hurt to find that the great labour of the abolition had fallen upon me, and therefore that he had less to tell of his father than he imagined, supposing, but falsely supposing, that his father had done everything in that great question. He had imagined, again, that his father was the author of the inquiry concerning the poor slaves, and that he had moved in it before me, if not that he had employed me in aiding him. It could not then but put him in pain to find that I was the first person who gave birth to the inquiry, and that I first suggested it to his father, and not his father to me."

THE first article in the fourth number of our paper was a review of Mr. Abner Brown's "Recollections of the Conversation-Parties of the Rev. Charles Simeon." The death of the last survivor of the five earnest men who founded that school of Evangelism of which Mr. Simeon was the head leads us to refer to that article. Simeon, Venn, Thornton, and Wilberforce have all passed away; and now Dr. William Marsh, Honorary Canon of Worcester, one of Simeon's trustees, is to be added to the list. He died on the 24th ult., at his rectory of Beddington, near Croydon, rather more than a month after he completed his eighty-ninth year. Dr. Marsh was ordained in 1799, before he had taken his degree, and was



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successively vicar of Basildon Berkshire, rector of St. Peter's Colchester, rector of St. Thomas's Birmingham, and incumbent of St. Mary's Leamington. In 1860 he was inducted to the living of Beddington, having previously been appointed honorary canon of Worcester in 1848. He first became known about 1815, as a fellow-worker with Charles Simeon for the conversion of the Jews, and was an eloquent preacher. Dr. Marsh published a sermon on the convalescence of George III., and one on the death of that sovereign; Sermons on Justification by Faith, and on the death of the late Rev. James Haldane Stewart; "Plain Thoughts on Prophecy," a pamphlet "On the Claims of the Church of England on the Affections of the People;" a "Catechism of the Church of England," and other works of a similar character. The close of his life was full of peace and trust; and the friendly gatherings on the family festivals show the love and esteem in which he was held. On his eighty-sixth birthday he was at Beddington; and there were great rejoicings, as also in the July of this year, when he completed his eighty-ninth year, and troops of friends came to offer him their congratulations. He was taken ill only a few days before his death. His son, the Rev. William Marsh, is the incumbent of St. Leonard's-on-Sea. Miss Catherine Marsh, one of his daughters, is the author of "English Hearts and English Hands" and the "Memoirs of Captain Hedley Vicars."

THE synodical condemnation of the "Essays and Reviews" has called forth an able pamphlet by Dr. Manning, formerly Archdeacon of Chichester, but now a dignitary of the Church of Rome, in which he openly taunts Convocation with its impotence in the authoritative regulation of opinion by asking two simple questions—"Has this condemnation any force, or has it none?" "Is it a judicial decision or a mere theological manifesto?" Leaving Convocation on the horns of this implied dilemma—that, as a judicial manifesto, it places Convocation in collision with the Crown in Council, or is otherwise mere waste paper—he then asks, "Will any one modify the opinion he has entertained of the 'Essays and Reviews' because of this judgment? Will the followers of the Essays give up the book as unsound? Will those who have learned to disbelieve the inspiration of parts of the Scriptures, or the eternity of punishment, or the Messianic prophecies, renounce those opinions as errors because the Convocation has condemned the book?"

THE Primate has collated two of the proctors of the Lower House of Convocation to honorary canopies in Canterbury Cathedral—the Rev. Ashton Oxenden, rector of Pluckley, near Ashford, author of the "Pluckley and Barham Tracts," and the Rev. J. C. Buchanan Riddell, rector of Harrietsham, secretary to the Canterbury Diocesan Board of Education.

WE are sorry to record the death of Mr. Richard Simpson, bookseller, of King William Street, Strand, in his thirty-fourth year, on the 24th ult. Mr. Simpson leaves a widow and young family to mourn his loss.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Times* gives the following lines, which he found written on the slate belonging to a prisoner under sentence of penal servitude for the second time, and who has repeatedly been convicted besides. The italics are ours.

"I cannot take my walks abroad—  
I'm under lock and key;  
And much the public I applaud  
For all their care of me.  
Not more than others I deserve—  
In fact, much less than more;  
Yet I have food while others starve  
Or beg from door to door.  
The honest pauper in the street  
Half-naked I behold;  
While I am clad from head to feet,  
And covered from the cold.  
Thousands there are who scarce can tell  
Where they may lay their head;  
But I've a warm and well-aired cell,  
A bath, good books, good bed.  
While they are fed on workhouse fare,  
And grudge their scanty food,  
Three times a day my meals I get,  
Sufficient, wholesome, good.  
Then to the British public health,  
Who all our care relieve;  
And, while they treat us as they do,  
They'll never want for thieves."

THE state-apartments of Windsor Castle were, on Thursday last, thrown open to the public, under the usual restrictions, and will continue so till the return of the royal family.

THE churchwardens and vestry of Selsea, a parish about eight miles from Chichester, have determined to pull down the old church and build a new one a mile and a half away from the old site. Selsea was once an important place, and the see of a bishop, till it was transferred to Chichester, in 1075. The encroachments of the sea (our readers will excuse the unintentional pun) gradually led to the decay of the town. We sincerely

hope that the opposition made by the majority of the parishioners to the destruction of the venerable edifice, the only remaining record of the former importance of the place, may lead the vestry to rescind the vote for its demolition. The Bishop of Chichester has been appealed to, but declines to give the opposition his sanction. Bishop Wilfrid, the first bishop of the see over which his lordship presides, was consecrated Bishop of Selsea during the reign of Edilwack, king of the South Saxons, about the year 670.

BARON MAROCHETTI is in the ascendant. The other day he visited Barnsley to fix upon the site in Locke Parke for the statue of the late Mr. Joseph Locke, the engineer. For a similar purpose he has been to Glasgow, where there is to be an equestrian statue of the Prince Consort, the execution of which has been entrusted to him.

ACCORDING to a parliamentary paper just issued, the value of printed books exported in the seven months ended in July was £248,830, being a slight increase on the previous year.

BESIDES the books already announced as about to be published by Messrs. Longman & Co. during the autumn months, they will issue in October a new and cheaper edition of "The New Testament, illustrated with numerous engravings on wood from the old masters;" "Tuscan Sculptors: their Lives, Works, and Times: with Illustrations from Original Drawings and Photographs," by Charles C. Perkins; "Rome, Ancient and Medieval: being a History of the City from its Foundation to the Sixteenth Century of the Christian Era," by Thomas H. Dyer, author of the article on Rome in Dr. Smith's "Dictionary of Greek and Roman Geography;" "Last Winter in Rome and other Italian Cities," by C. R. Weld, author of "The Pyrenees, West and East;" "The Autumn Holidays of a Country Parson," a selection from the contributions of A. K. H. B. to *Fraser's Magazine* and *Good Words*; "Explorations in South-West Africa: being an Account of a Journey in the years 1861 and 1862 from Walvisch Bay to Lake Ngami and the Victoria Falls," by Thomas Baines, formerly attached to the North Australian Expedition; and the sixth edition of "The Elements of Physics or Natural Philosophy," by Dr. Arnott, Part II. (completion).

MESSRS. MACMILLAN & Co. announce:—"A Commentary on the Epistles of St. Paul the Apostle," by Dr. Vaughan; "The Gospel of the Kingdom of Heaven: a Series of Lectures on the Gospel according to St. Luke," by the Rev. F. D. Maurice; "St. Paul's Epistle to the Galatians: the Greek Text Revised, with Notes and Introduction," by Dr. Lightfoot, Hulsean Professor of Divinity; "Brief Notes on the Greek of the New Testament, for English Readers," by the Rev. Francis Trench; "The Church of England and Common Sense; or, a Working Faith for Thoughtful Men," by the Rev. Harry Jones; "The Poetical Works of John Clare, the Northamptonshire Peasant, including many Pieces hitherto Unpublished, with Memoir and Autobiography," Professor Kingsley's "History of England for Boys;" Professor Fawcett's "Elementary Lessons in Political Economy;" "Treatise on Natural Philosophy," by Professor W. Thomson of Glasgow, and Professor Guthrie Tait of Edinburgh; "A History of the Mathematical Theory of Probability, from Pascal to Laplace," by I. Todhunter; Professor T. H. Huxley's "Lessons in Elementary Physiology;" "The Bible Word-Book: a Glossary of Old English Bible Words," by J. Eastwood, M.A., of St. John's College, and W. Aldis Wright, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge; "The Ballad Book. A Collection of the Choicest British Ballads," selected and arranged by William Allingham; "The Poems of Robert Burns," edited from the original edition, and from manuscripts, with copious glossarial index, and a brief memoir by Alexander Smith; "The Song Book: Words and Tunes from the best Poets and Musicians," selected and arranged by John Hullah, Professor of Vocal Music in King's College, London; "Sunday Book of Poetry for the Young," selected and arranged by C. F. Alexander; "A Book of Golden Deeds," by the author of "The Heir of Redclyffe;" and "Stories of Number Nip," by Mark Lemon, with six illustrations by Charles Keene.

MESSRS. TRIBNER & Co. have in preparation, in three volumes, 8vo., "The History of India as Told by its own Historians: comprising the Muhammadan Period from A.D. 1000, by the late Sir H. M. Elliot," edited by Mr. E. B. Cowell; and "Memoirs of the History, Philology, and Ethnic Distribution of the Races of the North-Western Provinces of India," being an amplified edition of the Glossary of Indian Terms by the

late Sir H. M. Elliot, arranged from manuscript materials collected by him, by Dr. Reinhold Rost. MESSRS. HURST AND BLACKETT will publish in a few days "The Cost of Caergwyn," a novel, in three volumes, by Mary Howitt.

DR. JOHN BROWN has another companion to "Rab and his Friends" in the press, entitled "The Enterkin." It will be published by Messrs. Edmonston and Douglas, who also announce "Frost and Fire, Natural Engines, Tool-marks, and Chips: with Sketches drawn from Nature;" "The Earlier Years of Our Lord's Life on Earth," by the Rev. William Hanna, D.D., LL.D.; "Sabbath Verses," by Lord Kinloch, author of "The Circle of Christian Doctrine," "Time's Treasure;" and "Cakes, Leeks, Puddings, and Potatoes: a Lecture on the Nationalities of the United Kingdom," by George Seton, Advocate, author of "The Law and Practice of Heraldry."

MR. NEWBY announces for publication in September and October: "Reaping the Whirlwind: a Novel," by Mrs. Mackenzie Daniel, author of "After Long Years;" "The Queen of the Seas: a Tale of Sea and Land," by Mr. C. F. Armstrong; "Beatrice Leigh," by L. J. Curling; other works of fiction; and Mr. Day's "English America; or, Pictures of Canadian Places and People," by the author of "Down South."

WE have to announce a new volume containing four interesting unpublished letters of Madame de Maintenon:—"Quatre Lettres Inédites de Madame de Maintenon; précédées et accompagnées d'un Précis Historique, par Victor Fouqué," an octavo volume of 162 pages.

THE third volume of M. Minssen's French translation of Gervinus's "Geschichte des 19ten Jahrhunderts" is now ready.

EMERSON'S "Conduct of Life" has been published in French at Brussels, under the title of "Les Lois de la Vie; traduit de l'Anglais par X. Eyma." Kingsley's "Alton Locke" has also been published at the same place in French as "Alton Locke, Tailleur et Poète."

THE Abbé Laurent de Saint-Aignan has published a most elaborate work, consisting of some 480 pages, on Palestine—"La Terre Sainte, Description Topographique, Historique, et Archéologique," extensively illustrated with maps, plans, views, &c.

A NEW Shakespearian pamphlet is just published—"A propos de Shakespeare, ou le Nouveau Livre de Victor Hugo, par J. Ch. Dabas."

THE *Literarisches Centralblatt* (No. 35) gives a review of Karcher's French version of Kinglake's "Invasion of the Crimea;" of Pertzholdt's "Reise im Westlichen und Südlichen Europäischen Russland im Jahre 1855;" and of Dr. John Tilt's "Uterine Therapeutics;"—Dr. Petermann, in *Perthes's Mittheilungen*, furnishes an account of Whitcombe's "New Zealand Expedition," with some account of his adventures and death, and a paper on the Suez Canal;—the *Globus* (No. 6), "Die Miscegenation in Yankeelande;"—the *Europa* (No. 5), "Schottische Vergnügungsfahrten;"—the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes* (No. 34), Story's "Roba di Roma;"—the *Unterhaltungen am Häuslichen Herd* (No. 34), "Scenen aus dem Englischen Landleben—in einem reichen Hause;"—the *Ausland* (No. 34), "Kopenhagen als Festung und Kriegshafen;" "Die Pitcairner auf der Norfolk Insel;" and "Nekrolog der alten Pariser Morgue;"—the *Göttingen Gelehrte Anzeigen* (No. 30), Mackintosh's "Progress of Ethical Philosophy," and Pertzholdt's "Reise in Europäischen Russland;" and *Glaser's Jahrbücher* (No. 2), Tanc, "Histoire Diplomatique de la Guerre d'Orient en 1854."

BUNYAN is becoming popular in Germany. Several German versions of "The Pilgrim's Progress" already exist; and now "The Holy War" has also been translated and published at Eisleben by the Christliche Verein.

A CURIOUS book, full of gossip, has just been published in Germany by M. A. Büchting—"Geographie des Buchhandels."

A NEW novel on the eve of publication, "Geister und Menschen," by Dr. A. Wilbrandt, is said to be of a strongly sensational cast.

THE first volume of a most important work on America has just made its appearance at Madrid, under the title of "Coleccion de Documentos Inéditos relativos al Descubrimiento, Conquista y Colonizacion de las Posesiones Españolas en América y Oceania, sacados en su mayor parte del real archivo de Indias, bajo la direccion de los Sres. D. Joaquin F. Pacheco y D. Francisco de Cárdenas, y de D. Luis Torres de Mendoza: con la cooperacion de otras personas competentes."

M. ROD. REX'S "Histoire de la Renaissance Politique de l'Italie, 1814-1861," is prohibited entrance into Rome or the Austrian dominions.



# THE READER.

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## CORRESPONDENCE.

(The Editor does not hold himself responsible for opinions entertained by Correspondents. Anonymous communications cannot be inserted.)

### ENGLISH NOTIONS OF AMERICAN SOCIETY.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Aug. 30, 1864.

SIR,—I think that there is one part of the case which your "New Yorker" unconsciously leaves out of view, and which is of more importance than the statistics with which his letter is chiefly filled. Statistics, unless full and complete, are nearly useless. A town may be pointed out with 5000 inhabitants and only two places of worship, and another with 5000 people and four places of worship; and it may be inferred that the latter is the best supplied of the two. Yet the fact may be quite otherwise. The town with two churches may have 2000 sittings; the town with four churches may have only 1800. Thus, as I have said, statistics which are not complete are of little value. I have attended one of the most popular churches in New York, and found it with two-thirds of a congregation in the morning and no evening service. In London such a church would have had three services, and would have been full morning and evening. But, as I have said, the point I wish to allude to is of another kind.

I might refer the "New Yorker" to many proofs in the best New York journals of a state of things in America to which we in London have no counterpart. It was but a month or two since, in the *New York Tribune*, the following paragraph appeared, in a leading article:—

"A couple of newspapers in Massachusetts having recently animadverted in severe terms upon the usual ineptitude which marks the close of every Congressional session, and having named, as instances, two Senators who are classed as Republicans, we reply, 'No half-pay work, if you please. While you howl over the two Union men who were drunk on a certain occasion, do not forget two prominent Democratic Senators who were besotted by drink day and night, week after week, for more than two-thirds of the whole session.'"

The Senate of the United States, I need hardly say, is the House of Peers—or, at least, the house of gentlemen—of America. Yet this is a New York account of the state of this body in this present year 1864. To this I might add many proofs of the existence of "lobbying"—that is, of buying votes with money in the lobbies of the Hall of Congress. I heard it spoken of when I was in America as a fact of constant occurrence; and I have seen it recently described in the *Tribune* as the cause of the exemption of stocks in hand from the recent impost on whisky. The whisky-dealers—so it is declared—bought this exemption with hard cash disbursed to the members in the lobbies. But I do not mean to do more than allude to these things.

For what chiefly offends me in American politics is the political "rowdyism" which everywhere prevails. We find it in Mr. Seward's letter on the *Trent* case; in which he boldly avows, and seems to be proud to declare, that, although it was right to give up Messrs. Mason and Slidell, yet, if it had suited the purpose of the United States Government, that Government would have kept the prisoners, *right or wrong*. This I call political rowdyism; and I find it everywhere. Thus Mr. Baxter, M.P. for Montrose, one of the most honest and liberal of our legislators, in his published narrative of his travels in America, thus describes a single incident:—

"I was talking one evening with a very pleasant Southerner, in the dining-room of a large hotel, on the prospects of the Anglo-Saxon race, and happened to say, 'It appears to me that Providence has designed the two nations, England and the United States, to civilize the globe.' A little sharp-featured man opposite me started up and addressed me—'Two nations! Guess there's only one, stranger—goin' to annex that little island of yours one of these fine days—don't know how little Vic. will like that; but got to do it; no mistake about that.'"

Now here I see only one principle of action: ambition, self-interest, resorting to violence. It is the Russian way of dealing with Poland, only with republican actors. It may be said that it is not fair to judge America by the language of one foolish man. Mr. Baxter gives it as a specimen; and I myself found a like feeling everywhere prevalent.

But take a published example, known to us through the New York journals:—In December

1861 Captain Wilkes boarded an English ship and took two passengers out of her. Lord Russell appealed to Mr. Seward in calm and courteous language, and Mr. Seward admitted the indefensible character of the act, and gave up the prisoners. Not the least complaint was ever made of the manner in which the English Government conducted this negotiation. There was the most careful avoidance, on Lord Russell's part, of all that might irritate or annoy the people of America. Yet, before many days had elapsed, a respectable member of Congress arose in his place, not to denounce Mr. Seward for giving way to England, but to denounce England herself for maintaining what Mr. Seward had admitted to be her rights. Full of anger because the Washington Government had been thus calmly rebuked by England, Mr. Lovejoy said:—

"I hate the British Government. I publicly avow and record that hate, and declare that it shall be inextinguishable. I mean to cherish it while I live, and to bequeath it to my children when I die. I have three sons, and I charge them, when war with England comes, to enter into that war. When we have suppressed the rebellion we shall be prepared to wipe out and avenge the insult that we have received. We will then stir up Ireland; we will appeal to the Chartists of England; we will go to the old French *habitans* of Canada; we will join with France and Russia to take away the Eastern possessions of that proud empire; and we will take away the crown from that government before we cease."

Now the one thing I complain of here is that no reference is made to the topic of dispute. Mr. Lovejoy could not, and did not, assert that England had done any wrong to America. England had merely claimed justice—the same justice which the Washington Government would have claimed had the case been its own. But this was an "insult" never to be forgiven. I call this political rowdyism.

I notice this point because I believe this fault to be very common in America. It is impossible to read the American papers, as I do, without often meeting with hints as to future annexations of Mexico, Canada, or Cuba, in which the question of right is as wholly dropped out of view as it was in the case of the partition of Poland. All such schemes I deem to differ from the morals of highwaymen only in degree, not at all in principle. I fear, too, that bad morality with reference to foreign affairs is almost inseparable from bad morality in home politics. Hence I read without surprise the account which *Harper's Magazine*, the first periodical in New York, gives of the general state of the political world in that country. It is not complimentary; but would Harper have dared to publish it if it had not been substantially true?—

"Political corruption—why, it has become a jest and a by-word amongst us—a fact now conceded by all parties, and which no intelligent man ever thinks of denying. We hear it from all sides. There is corruption in the dispensation of offices, in the management of the press, in political measures, in political services; and there is a growing indifference to corruption among the masses of the people."

But, after all, is not one notorious fact decisive of the whole question? In spite of a thousand disclaimers—in spite of the sincere horror of hundreds of honest Americans—is it to be either doubted or denied that the *New York Herald* continues to be the most popular journal in America? What more need be said? A LONDONER.

### THE NATURAL ORDER ARALIACEÆ.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Manchester, August 30.

SIR,—THE READER of August 27th contains a notice of my "British and Garden Botany;" and certain errors are pointed out in the description of the *Araliaceæ*. You will, perhaps, deem it of sufficient importance to your botanical readers that it should be established whether the asserted errors really be such.

The reviewer objects to its being stated by me that the *Araliaceæ* differ from the *Umbellifera* in having more than two cells to the ovary, and that a many-celled ovary is one of their important characters, saying, in correction, that, if this were the case, "which it is not, two-thirds of all *Araliaceæ* would be excluded." He farther objects that the utmost number of stamens given—that of double the number of petals—is also too low; and, further, that, instead of the order containing only about 150 species, there are three times that number.

In Lindley's "Vegetable Kingdom," p. 780, (3rd edit., 1853), order *Araliaceæ*, I find

"Stamens equal in number to the petals, or twice as many—ovary with more cells than two—fruit consisting of several one-seeded cells. Genera 21. Species 160."

Bentham says that the *Araliaceæ*

"differ from Umbellates in their . . . fruit . . . consisting often of more than two (from two to ten) carpels."

Henfrey says—

"Resembling *Umbellifera*, but . . . the fruit 3—or several celled. Genera 22. Species 160."

Balfour says,

"Stamens as many as the petals, or twice as many—ovary two or more celled. Fruit 2—15 celled."

I do not see that the words in my work differ much from those quoted. If the reviewer believes me to be in error, it necessarily follows that he impeaches the authors I have referred to. In order to be set right on a matter of scientific accuracy (important to all botanists), I beg to inquire if the teachings of the eminent authorities in question be erroneous in this respect? In other words, are Lindley and Bentham, Henfrey and Balfour, all wrong about the *Araliaceæ*? If so, I am at least in good company. Have 290 *Araliaceæ* been observed since 1853, when Lindley said the number was 160? Like most other untravelled botanists, resident far from large herbariums, in such matters I must depend upon the statements of recognised writers. Here, in the provinces, if, as the reviewer says, "few of the standard books are available for reference," it is important that we should know whether such authors as Lindley and Bentham are reliable.

The reviewer remarks also that I state the *Araliaceæ* to be chiefly Japanese. What is said is that the species preferred by amateur cultivators are chiefly from Japan. The geographical distribution of the family is spoken of on a previous page, and the account corresponds with what your reviewer gives as the true one. That the omission as to the *Cycadaceæ* and the tree-ferns being palm-like in habit did not arise from non-acquaintance with the plants is shown by the cross-references on pages 774 and 777.

I appreciate the candour with which the reviewer says he has looked in my work for blunders. For my own part I prefer, in whatever way employed, to seek for worth rather than for worthlessness. It is a satisfaction, however, to have one's book remarked on by a man who understands his subject. The notice in your pages places in a strong light the general trustworthiness of THE READER compared with another journal which said last week of the key to my work, with the most ludicrous and flippant ignorance, that it was "nearly identical" with that in Mr. Bentham's Handbook, whereas the merest child in botany might see that the two keys are totally unlike, both in plan and compass, while the experienced botanist would perceive that my own is original, and not even upon the Lamarckian (or dichotomous) system!—Yours, &c.,

LEO H. GRINDON.

## SCIENCE.

### THE POULKOWA OBSERVATORY.

ON the 31st of July, 1835, the foundation-stone of this, the most magnificent building ever erected for astronomical purposes—Tycho Brahe's not excepted—was laid. On the 19th of August, 1839, the ceremonial inauguration took place; and, on the same date this year, the twenty-fifth anniversary of its opening was celebrated with much pomp and circumstance, and in the presence of representative astronomers from most of the countries of Europe, Mr. De La Rue representing our Astronomical Society.

The venerable Struve, who forsook philology for astronomy, and Dorpat for Poulkova, is the master mind to which not only the great renown of the Observatory, but its extensiveness and unequalled construction must be attributed; and fortunate for science is it that the skill of a Struve was united to the munificence of a Nicholas to give it effect.

Art is indeed exhausted at Poulkova. The largest refractor in Europe; meridian circles; vertical circles; clocks sunk deep in the earth to preserve their rate; masses of masonry, some of them 30 feet below the floor and 40 feet long by 15 broad, to support the instruments; preservation of constant temperature through a Russian summer and winter—everything that man can think of to render observation perfect is here found, and now for five-and-twenty years has been employed with unvaried success. The celebration last month was of a most impressive character.

Between two full-length portraits, one of the Emperor Nicholas, the munificent founder, the



other of the present Emperor, the liberal supporter of this unrivalled institution, were seated, side by side, the world-renowned W. Struve, the father, and the present director Otto Struve, his distinguished son. On either side were placed the gentlemen composing the efficient staff of the Observatory, among whose names known to fame may be cited that of Dr. Winnecke, the Vice-Director, as a most zealous contributor to astronomical science.

After an opening speech delivered by the elder Struve with much feeling, the present Director gave, in an eloquent address, a *résumé* of the functions of the central Observatory and its relation to the other observatories of the empire, dwelling pointedly on the desirability of the several directors of the latter selecting and working out on their individual responsibility some department of science suited to the resources of their several establishments; for, with the many calls upon the central Observatory, it was not in the interest of science that he should undertake the direction of the labours of the numerous observatories scattered over the empire.

Turning to the foreign astronomers, M. Otto Struve expressed a hope that the same cordial co-operation would continue which had hitherto existed between Poulkova and the astronomers, both official and non-official, of other nations. He bore testimony to the zeal of Englishmen, and to the influence of the Astronomical Society of London in promoting astronomy, and was particularly desirous of making known on that occasion how much he felt indebted to the friendly co-operation of the English Astronomer-Royal, and to the intimate alliance between two of the great centres of astronomy—Greenwich and Poulkova.

M. Buniakowsky, Vice-President of the Academy of Sciences, then read a congratulatory address to the projector of the Observatory, expressing the approval of the Academy of the work already accomplished, and its confidence in the present able Director.

The central Observatory is not only concerned with astronomical science, but is also the intellectual centre of all the geodetical work of the empire, to promote which a high school of geodesy, military surveying, and navigation has been established in connexion with the Observatory, under the able direction of Dr. Döllén, who was complimented by Generals Batiouschnoff, Leontiew, and Admiral Selénji.

The veteran Hansen of Gotha, Mr. Warren De La Rue, President of the Astronomical Society, D. Claussen of Dorpat, Dr. Bruhns of Leipzig, Mr. Förster of Berlin, severally addressed the meeting, which subsequently visited the various departments of the Observatory. In the evening about one hundred guests, including many notabilities of St. Petersburg, partook of an elegant banquet, enlivened by toasts and the band of the Semenoff regiment.

The Emperor, not content with providing such a rich astronomical treat for the distinguished visitors, placed a steamer at their disposal, in which Cronstadt and its vicinity were subsequently visited.

## THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

THE arrangements for the forthcoming meeting, which commences at Bath on the 14th inst., are nearly completed. The president, Sir Charles Lyell, Bart., will be supported by the following vice-presidents—The Earl of Cork, Lord Lieutenant of Somersetshire, the Marquis of Bath, Earl Nelson, Lord Portman, the Very Rev. the Dean of Hereford, the Ven. the Archdeacon of Bath, Mr. W. Tito, M.P., Mr. A. E. Way, M.P., Mr. F. H. Dickinson, and Mr. W. Sanders. The personnel of the Sections is as follows:—

(A.) *Mathematical and Physical Science.*—President—Professor Arthur Cayley, F.R.S., V.P.R.A.S., Sadlerian Professor of Mathematics in the University of Cambridge, and Correspondent of the Institute of France. Secretaries—Professor Stevelly, LL.D.; Professor H. J. S. Smith, F.R.S.; Mr. Fleeming Jenkin, C.E.; and Rev. George Buckle, M.A.

(B.) *Chemical Science.*—President—Dr. Odling, F.R.S. Secretaries—Professor Liveing, Mr. A. Vernon Harcourt, and Mr. R. Biggs.

(C.) *Geology.*—President—Professor Phillips, F.R.S., F.G.S., Professor of Geology in the University of Oxford. Secretaries—Messrs. H. C. Sorby, F.R.S., W. B. Dawkins, F.G.S., and J. Johnston.

(D.) *Zoology and Botany, including Physiology.*—President—Dr. J. Edward Gray, F.R.S. Secretaries—Messrs. E. Percival Wright, M.D., F.L.S., H. T. Stainton, F.L.S., and C. E. Broome.

(Sub-Section D.) As usual, a Physiological Section, under the presidency of Dr. Edward Smith, F.R.S. Secretaries—Messrs. W. Turner, F.R.S.E., and J. S. Bartrum.

(E.) *Geography and Ethnology.*—President—Sir Roderick I. Murchison, K.C.B., G.C.St.S., D.C.L., F.R.S., Director-General of the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom. Secretaries—Capt. R. M. Murchison, Messrs. Thomas White, Clements R. Markham, and W. C. Bates, Assistant-Secretary Geographical Society.

(F.) *Economic Science and Statistics.*—President—Dr. William Farr, F.R.S. Secretaries—Messrs. F. Purdy, E. Macrory, and E. T. Payne.

(G.) *Mechanical Science.*—President—Mr. J. Hawkshaw, F.R.S. Secretaries—Messrs. P. Le Neve Foster and Robert Pitt.

The different Sections will assemble on Thursday, September 15; Friday, September 16; Saturday, September 17; Monday, September 19; Tuesday, September 20, at 11 a.m. precisely. The Committees of Sections will meet at 2-30 p.m. on Wednesday, September 14—at 10 a.m. precisely on the other days.

The first general meeting will be held in the theatre on Wednesday, September 14, at 8 p.m. precisely, when Sir W. G. Armstrong will resign the chair, and Sir Charles Lyell, Bart., will assume the presidency, and deliver the usual President's Address.

## PROFESSOR DE FILIPPI ON MAN AND THE APES.

THE paper by Professor Kölliker, of which a translation appeared in our recent numbers, shows him to be a decided supporter of the theory of the evolution of new species from pre-existing forms; and, in his lectures on the relation of man to the lower animals, lately delivered before the University of Turin, Professor de Filippi adds his name to the daily increasing list of distinguished naturalists holding opinions more or less corresponding with those put forward by Mr. Darwin.

The two rival hypotheses are discussed in the following terms by Professor de Filippi:—"One of them," he says, "requires the direct intervention, in the production of every organic form, of the plastic action of a first cause, of a creative force, and, in the disappearance of these forms, the destructive action of telluric revolutions: it represents life and death as passing by turns over the surface of the earth, like the chalk and the sponge over the black-board of a schoolmaster. According to this theory, specific types are unalterable and fixed; and, in place of those which have become extinct, others have successively made their appearance by a fresh direct act of creation."

"It is easy to see that this theory consists of a series of postulates which, by their very nature, admit of no discussion; it presents a most seductive simplicity, but a simplicity which is deceptive. It repels all questions; but there is one which greatly embarrasses it, and which has often been proposed with sarcastic ingenuity to the naturalist—namely, Was the fowl or its egg first created? In fact, it has by no means the character of a theory: it is a clumsy but specious hypothesis, which must follow the destinies of the cataclystic geology; and, by the discredit now irrevocably attaching to the latter, it has lost all its foundation, and, we may almost say, all pretext for its existence."

"The second theory starts from a diametrically opposite principle—namely, the variability of specific types. It assumes the continual and multifarious development of a single uninterrupted creation; it admits the same chronological order for the diverse forms of animals and plants which have successively peopled the earth, but regards them as the result of a simple, continuous, and progressive mutation; it establishes between the animals of one epoch and those of a subsequent one a genetic relationship as between ancestors and descendants."

"This theory is also hypothetical; but it is at least in perfect harmony with the leading fact of the progressive development of the organic creation; it is supported by the double philosophical principle of constant action and of the minimum of action, and its fundamental premises may be checked by facts which are continually reproduced under our eyes."

"The difficulties of its application in particular cases are still very great; but they are due in great part to the extreme poverty of our known materials in comparison with those still hidden from the eye of man. It is because it has the courage to meet a sea of questions, confiding in time and the future discoveries of science, that this theory

should be preferred to another, which, having taken its line, turns its back upon all questions."

We need not follow Professor de Filippi through the arguments by which he endeavours to show that the idea of the species, like that of all the other elements of classification, is to be regarded as an arbitrary conception of the human mind, having no real existence in nature, as most, if not all, of them must be familiar to the readers of Darwin's work on the origin of species. He arrives finally at the result that "a physiological determination of the species is impossible; and henceforward we can only speak of systematic species, of species of convenience. What we are in the habit of denominating races or varieties are incipient species; what we call species are well-defined varieties, and especially varieties confirmed by a distant origin."

"The totality of created species," adds our author, "may be represented by a tree. The green boughs of the year are the existing species; the buds are the varieties or races, or, in other words, the species of the future; the woody branches of preceding years are the extinct forms, the sources of the existing species. Among these branches the old withered buds, conquered by the others in what Darwin calls the struggle for existence, are the species which have become extinct without leaving successors."

Applying these notions to the anthropoid apes, the orang-outan, the chimpanzee, and the gorilla, Professor de Filippi shows that the divergence of opinion as to the specific unity of the first and second of these forms may be explained "by the hypothesis of so many races or future species, produced in accordance with the law of natural selection by each of the three commonly-accepted systematic species." As the three anthropoid apes are peculiar to the eastern hemisphere, we may leave out of consideration for a time the American monkeys, which, indeed, form a distinct and relatively inferior group; and we can then group the other apes (the Old World types) so as to form three series, each of which will stand in relation to its own species of anthropoid ape. The baboons approach the gorilla, and the macaques the chimpanzee; the *Cereopithec*, *Semnopithec*, and gibbons form a series ascending to the orang. "Thus the gorilla is a perfected baboon, the chimpanzee a perfected macaque, and the orang a perfected gibbon." This view is confirmed by M. Gratiolet's admirable researches upon the cerebral convolutions of the Primates.

The three "Darwinian series" thus obtained are inserted by Professor de Filippi upon his symbolical tree of Nature in the following manner:—"The most distinct species or varieties of baboons must correspond with so many lateral green branches of a principal branch which bears the gorilla as its terminal shoot. We may then, in the same way, group the macaques and the chimpanzee, and the *Cereopithec*, *Semnopithec*, gibbons, and orang-outan. This first step completed, there is no reason for our stopping and avoiding the second; and, therefore, following the same principle, we shall in turn unite the three main branches to a still older parent branch; and, still advancing logically in the series of ante-human epochs, we shall be led to derive all the monkeys from a common trunk."

In all these statements Professor de Filippi remarks that he has only been preparing the way for a far more serious problem—namely, What is the place of man in the empire of Nature? What, and in what degree, are his zoological affinities? The opinions of different naturalists upon this subject are cited by our author as follows:—

"According to Linnæus we belong to the class Mammalia and order Primates; at the head of the line, indeed, but in the same line with the apes."

"Blumenbach and Cuvier, establishing a line of demarcation among the Primates of Linnæus, formed on the one side of it, expressly for us, the order Bimana, and placed that of the Quadrumana on the other. But we had hardly begun to feel ourselves, in this new position, more comfortably seated on the throne of Nature, when Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire made his appearance and endeavoured to re-establish the old relationship between man and the apes by showing that even we, originally, were quadrumanous."

"Owen has tried to do something better. He sought in the head of man for that title of nobility which had just been torn from him at the feet, and founded the order of *Archencephala*—that is to say, mammalia having the great cerebral hemispheres richly furnished with convolutions, and entirely covering the cerebellum and the olfactory lobes. But Science, that pitiless leveller, having made a fresh advance, remains mistress of the field."



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"The precise limits between man and the ape are still, indeed, the torment of the anatomist, and the differences, which at first appear to be clear and precise, always vanish under analysis. The phantom of an odious relationship is no sooner laid than it rises again in a more severe and humiliating form. We have only one thing to do—to meet it."

This question of the affinity of man to the apes is not to be regarded as a resuscitation of some curious old notion: "it is a living question, which has never ceased to burn dimly beneath the ashes, waiting only for the opportune moment to present itself afresh in all its gravity."

Our first impression on examining the three apes which approach most closely to our own species is that they differ from man to such a degree that we cannot understand how so great a distance can be made a matter of question, and we feel a most decided aversion to acknowledge any relationship.

The great difference of the face is the first that presents itself. That of the chimpanzee is the least removed from the human form; but that of the gorilla, on the other hand, is horribly bestial. Nevertheless, if the face of a papou be compared with that of these apes, the difference between the two subjects of comparison is considerably diminished. The facial angle of human races varies between eighty-five and sixty-four degrees; in the apes we find a maximum differing but little from the human minimum. In the young orang-outan, before the first dentition is completed, the facial angle is sixty degrees.

In man and the higher apes and monkeys the humerus is longer than the fore-arm; in the American monkeys the proportion is reversed. The relative length of the hand also increases as we depart from the human species. These two characters of degradation commence their manifestation even in the human species—in the Negro as compared with the European. But the most important difference is that which is implied in the statement that man is bimanous and the apes quadrumanous. Here, however, it becomes necessary to understand thoroughly what are the characters distinguishing the hand from the foot. The hand and foot are perfectly homologous parts, as are all the isolated portions of the anterior and posterior limbs. But, within the region of this homology, there is room for such a modification that the terminal portion of one of these extremities may be called a hand, whilst that of the other receives the name of a foot. The characters commonly assigned to the hand consist in the independent mobility of the fingers, and especially of the thumb, which is separated from the other fingers and opposable to them. These characters certainly occur in the posterior extremities of the apes; but, as Bouy de Saint-Vincent has indicated, the foot of man may, by exercise, acquire the faculty of grasping; and Geoffroy de Saint-Hilaire has gone still further, and maintained that man himself was originally quadrumanous. In antique statues the great toe is represented as diverging from the others—an indication of the original independence of its movements, an independence of which we find considerable traces among certain peoples who are ignorant of the use of shoes. But this is not sufficient to constitute it a hand. "In the famous controversy between Owen and Huxley," says Professor de Filippi, "the latter has positively demonstrated that what has been called the posterior hand of the quadrumanus is a true foot, having attached to it a *peroneus longus* muscle, having its digits furnished with short flexor and extensor muscles, and its tarsus composed of seven bones arranged as in the human foot. And therefore he absolutely rejects the denomination of Quadrumanus consecrated by the authority of Cuvier and by long custom, and re-establishes the old order of Primates, including man and the apes, but not, as was done by Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, by referring man to the quadrumanous type, but by making the apes themselves bimanous."

In walking, the apes, as is well known, apply not the sole but the side of the foot to the ground, and this constitutes a striking difference in comparing them with man. But Professor de Filippi remarks that, if we observe the first steps of a little child, we see that, in the uncertainty of its movements, it keeps its feet turned inwards, as if in memory of an original character which must speedily be effaced.

In the arrangement of the hairy appendages of the skin, scattered sparingly over the surface of the body, but forming a thick covering on the head, we have another distinctive character of man; but the hair of the orang-outan presents,

to a certain extent, a similar distribution. In the mammalia generally, including the monkeys, the hair of the fore-arm lies in the same direction as that on the humeral portion—namely, towards the hand. But, in man and the anthropoid apes, this is not the case; in them the hair at the lower part of the fore-arm is turned outwards, and it then gradually rises and turns towards the elbow.

In the characters of the skin itself, also, we shall find that "man and the apes make common cause, and segregate themselves from other animals. By means of special conditions inherent in its elementary structure, the human skin, especially when affected by cold, acquires the peculiar roughness known under the name of *goose-skin*. This phenomenon was long considered to be peculiar to man; but it has been found to occur also in the orang-outan.

"The skin of the palm of the hand and of the sole of the foot, in man, presents the same abundance of papillæ, grouped in the same manner, and the same abundance of nerves terminating in these papillæ; by these characters it is differentiated from the skin of other regions of the body. . . . If the perfect homology between the hand and the foot were not more than sufficiently demonstrated, this would furnish an additional argument in its favour. Now the palms of what are called the four hands of the apes also present the same papillæ, grouped in the same manner, and furnished with the same nervous filaments; and these characters become entirely changed when we pass beyond the apes."

(To be continued.)

## ENGLISH AND FRENCH NATIONAL SURVEYS.

IT will be seen from the following account, which we extract from Sir R. Murchison's recently published address to the Royal Geographical Society, that our Ordnance Survey Map may now be said to be completed, although there is much re-surveying to be done as far as the maps on the large scale are concerned, if, indeed, we may not also include those on the small scale, of the counties first surveyed, the maps of which are so inferior to those recently produced under the able management of Sir Henry James:—

"The plans of the six northern counties of England, having been drawn on the large scales of twenty-five and six inches to the mile, have been reduced to and engraved on the scale of one inch to a mile; and, although the engraving of the hill features upon a few sheets is not yet finished, the map of England and Wales, for all practical purposes, may be said to be finished and published. The one-inch map of Ireland, in outline, reduced from the six-inch plans, has also been engraved and published, together with many of the sheets with the hill features represented.

"In Scotland the survey of Buteshire, Forfarshire, and Kincardineshire, on the large scale, was finished during the last year, and considerable portions of Aberdeenshire and Argyleshire have also been surveyed. All the southern portion of Scotland, including Perthshire and Forfarshire, has been engraved and published on the one-inch scale. The principal cultivated district of Scotland remaining to be surveyed extends from Peterhead to Inverness; and, for the purpose of expediting the work in this quarter, officers are stationed at Aberdeen and Inverness, and another will shortly be sent to Banff. The importance of proceeding also as rapidly as possible with the survey of the Highlands is now fully recognised; and rooms have been prepared at Fort Augustus to receive another officers' party.

"The publication of the Reports of the Royal Commission, and of several Select Committees of the House of Commons, has had the effect of fully enlightening the public as to the importance of having a complete cadastral or large survey of the United Kingdom. Last year Her Majesty's Government gave directions for the whole of England and Wales, south of Yorkshire and Lancashire, to be re-surveyed, and the plans drawn on the scales of 25 and 6 inches to a mile, like those of Scotland; and the first vote for proceeding with this great work was passed by the House of Commons this year without opposition; but with an objection, on the part of some members, to the insufficiency of the amount voted for prosecuting the survey with the rapidity which is desired.

"The principal triangulation, and the initial levelling of the United Kingdom, have been published; and the Survey Department is therefore

in a position to proceed with the detailed survey in any part of England and Wales. During the last year the survey of Middlesex was finished, with the exception of the detail-plans of the city of London, which has already been published in outline, and large portions of the counties of Surrey, Kent, Essex, Devonshire, Cornwall, and Hants have also been finished. The estimated cost of completing the Cadastral Survey of England and Wales is £1,400,000; but, with a grant amounting only to £75,000 for England, Ireland, and Scotland, or about £25,000 for England and Wales, it is obvious that the means is very disproportioned to the magnitude and cost of the work."

We have before referred to the arc of parallel now being measured between Valentia and Orsk. Sir R. Murchison thus refers to it:—

"The extension of the Triangulation of the United Kingdom into France and Belgium was published in 1862. This was undertaken for the purpose of connecting our triangulation with that of Europe; so that we now have a connected triangulation extending from the West of Ireland to the Ural Mountains, and the data for completing an arc of parallel in the latitude of 52° N., extending over about 72° of longitude. Operations are now in progress for determining the difference of longitude between selected stations along the course of the arc; and as, on account of the 'personal equation' of every observer, it is necessary that the same individual should be employed at every station, the Russian officers, Colonel Forsch and Captain Jilinski, of the Imperial Staff, who commenced their observations at the eastern extremity of the arc, are now working their way westward, and are expected to arrive in this country to observe at Greenwich, Milford, and Valentia in July next."

The Geological Survey, which always follows close upon the footsteps of the Geographer, is thus alluded to:—

"Besides an enumeration of the new geological maps which have been published in the last year of the Southern and Central Counties of England, and large portions of Ireland and the South of Scotland, I have explained in my Report to Parliament that, in the coming years, a sufficient number of surveyors will at once be employed in working out the structure of the North of England. Whilst it is an obvious duty of the Geological Survey to develop the great mineral resources which exist in the northernmost English counties, the public must recollect that the ordnance maps of that region, on which alone our work can be carried out, have only recently been brought towards completion. Until this was effected, I deemed it to be highly desirable to finish off the geology of the districts around the metropolis, particularly with a view to the greater supply of water for a vast population from subterranean sources. Now, however, that these southern districts have been geologically surveyed, no time will be lost in applying vigorously to the North the same processes as those by which the structure of Wales and the southern and central counties of England has been eliminated. In a few years, therefore, I hope to see maps and sections published which will fully illustrate the older rocks of the lake-regions of Cumberland and Westmoreland, as well as of the rich coal-fields of Yorkshire, Durham, and Northumberland."

France is not behindhand in the good work of giving to the world good maps. The 27th *livraison* of the *Carte de France du Dépôt de la Guerre*—the equivalent of our Ordnance map—has just appeared, containing sheets No. 197, Largentière; 219, Alby; 252, Bagnères; and 173, Tulle. This map is on a scale of  $\frac{1}{800,000}$ . Besides this part of the large map, the *Dépôt de la Guerre* has also recently issued the 22nd sheet of the chorographic map of France on a scale of  $\frac{1}{2,000,000}$ , containing the department of Creuse and Haute-Vienne entirely, and the greater portion of Vienne, Cherente, Dordogne, Corrèze, Puy-de-Dôme, and Allier.

Up to the present time 217 sheets of the large map, and 25 of the small one, have been issued.

Both England and France are at the present dealing with the past as well as the present. We are reproducing Domesday Book; the French are constructing a map of Gaul.

The publication of the fac-simile of "Domesday Book" by the photozincographic process was finished last year. The original MSS. are contained in two volumes, designated "Great Domesday Book" and "Little Domesday Book," containing 760 and 900 pages respectively. The fac-simile has, with one or two exceptions, been published by counties, in 32 volumes, and 10,280 volumes have already been printed. This copy of the



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Great Survey of the Conqueror has been received with great satisfaction by the public; and the production of a series of county maps, showing the position of the several manors or properties mentioned in it, is now contemplated.

The new map of Gaul, which was ordered to be undertaken in 1858, a commission of nine members being appointed to superintend it, is progressing rapidly. The first-fruits of the labours of the Commission were given to the world in 1861, in the shape of a map of Gaul under the proconsulate of Cæsar, on a scale of  $\frac{1}{100,000}$ . At the present moment a map of Gaul at the end of the Roman domination—that is, at the end of the sixth century—on a scale of  $\frac{1}{100,000}$ , is in preparation. This map extends on the east nearly to the eighth degree of longitude (from Paris), and will be printed in colours.

#### M. LAMARLE ON THE STABILITY OF FLUID SYSTEMS IN THIN LAMINÆ.

IN the sixth series of his researches "*Sur les Figures d'Equilibre d'une Masse Liquide sans Pesanteur*," M. Plateau established, in part experimentally and in part theoretically, the laws relating to laminæ which terminate in the same fluid angle, and to fluid angles concurring in the same fluid point. From these laws he concluded, and endeavoured to confirm his view by experiment, that every laminar system of equilibrium in which they are not satisfied is an unstable system; and, in conclusion, he expressed himself as follows:—

"I shall again recur to the laminar systems, in order to take a more general view of their theory. In fact, as I have already indicated, the fluid laminæ of which they are composed may be assimilated to tense membranes, and hence it will be understood that each system will arrange itself in such a manner that the sum of the surfaces of all the laminæ may be a minimum. But I reserve this subject for another series."

In his report on M. Lamarle's memoir, published in *Les Mondes* (18 August, 1864), from which this abstract is derived, M. Plateau explains that, in expressing himself thus, he proposed only to take as examples some particular laminar systems directly accessible to calculation in consequence of their simplicity, and to show that in each of them the sum of the surfaces of the laminæ is a minimum in relation to a certain mode of deformation, but that he had no intention of treating the problem from a general point of view, regarding it as unapproachable. It was clear that there existed a necessary relation between the principle of the minimum of the sum of the areas and M. Plateau's laws, but it seemed almost impossible to discover in what that relation consisted. All these difficulties have been solved by M. Lamarle with marvellous sagacity.

He begins by establishing more clearly the above-mentioned principle of the minimum, and then proceeds to the consideration of laminæ terminating in the same fluid angle. He imagines a certain number of plane laminæ starting from solid angles, and all uniting in a common fluid angle, and he cuts the whole by a plane perpendicular to the latter. The section being composed of straight lines starting respectively from fixed points, and all terminating in the same point, he first of all demonstrates, by simple geometrical considerations, that, if the straight lines be three in number, their sum will be a minimum when the angles formed by them are equal. If the straight lines be more numerous, he shows, still by equally simple means, that, in order to have a minimum sum, it is necessary to substitute for the single point of concurrence several such points united to each other by additional straight lines, in such a manner that at each of these points there may be only three right lines forming equal angles. Lastly, the diminution of the sum of the straight lines commencing from the origin of these modifications—that is to say, in the case of more than three straight lines, for example, as soon as the point of concurrence is doubled to give origin to the additional straight lines and points—it follows that the demonstration is equally applicable to curved lines, for these may always be replaced by their tangents in the immediate vicinity of the point of concurrence. M. Lamarle then shows that all these results apply also to the laminæ, whether plane or curved, the whole of which are intersected by the plane above mentioned—that is to say, the minimum of the sum of the areas requires that these laminæ shall unite in threes, at equal angles, at each fluid angle.

The first of M. Plateau's laws—namely, that in every stable laminar system more than three laminæ never terminate at the same fluid angle,

forming equal angles amongst themselves at this angle—is thus completely demonstrated and deduced from the principle of the minimum.

M. Lamarle then passes to the question of fluid angles meeting in the same fluid point. He imagines plane liquid laminæ all terminating at the same point of the interior of the system, and investigates the conditions which must be fulfilled by these laminæ in order that they may unite in threes at equal angles in conformity with the preceding law. He regards their common point as the centre of a sphere, which they thus intersect in accordance with the arcs of great circles; in this way we get a certain number of hollow pyramids having a single point for their apex, and for their bases spherical polygons, all the angles of which are of  $120^\circ$ . M. Lamarle first of all indicates that these polygons can only be triangles, quadrilaterals, and pentagons; which furnishes him with an analytical relation between the respective numbers of these different polygons and the total number of laminæ. He finds another by the condition that the sum of the surfaces of these polygons must represent the total surface of the sphere; lastly, all the polygons in question must be simply in juxtaposition, without any encroachment of the one upon the other in some places, or empty spaces between them in others. By means of these three conditions M. Lamarle finds that there are only seven possible arrangements of laminæ starting from the same point and uniting by threes at equal angles.

If, in each of these arrangements, the sides of the spherical polygons be replaced by their chords, we get the totality of the edges of a polyhedron, and the seven polyhedra thus formed are:—the regular tetrahedron; the right triangular prism with an equilateral base, with a definite relation between the height and the size of the base; the cube; the right pentagonal prism with a regular base, with a definite relation between the height and the side of the base; two peculiar polyhedra composed of quadrilaterals and pentagons; and, lastly, the regular dodecahedron. In these polyhedra the numbers of fluid angles are respectively 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16, and 20.

M. Lamarle shows that, for each of these systems, with the exception of that of the regular tetrahedron, we may always conceive a mode of deformation, from which, from its origin up to a certain limit, there results a diminution of the sum of the areas of the laminæ; the system of the regular tetrahedron, in which there are only four fluid angles, terminating in the same point at equal angles, is therefore the only one which can possess stability. Thus, when the laminæ are plane, the fluid angles which unite in the same fluid point are necessarily four in number and form equal angles.

M. Lamarle also proves that the same conclusion applies to curved laminæ, and consequently to curved angles; in fact, there is nothing to limit the smallness of the sphere above mentioned, and consequently we are at liberty to suppose this sphere so small that the laminæ contained in its interior might be regarded as planes.

M. Plateau's second law—namely, that, in every stable laminar system, the fluid angles terminating in the same point are always four in number, and form amongst themselves equal angles at this point—is therefore demonstrated by M. Lamarle as completely as the first law, and likewise deduced from the principle of the minimum.

It is to be remarked in addition that the modes of deformation supposed by M. Lamarle—brought by him, by means of an ingenious conception, all under the same principle—are precisely those which lead to actual results. M. Lamarle's memoir will appear in the *Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences*.

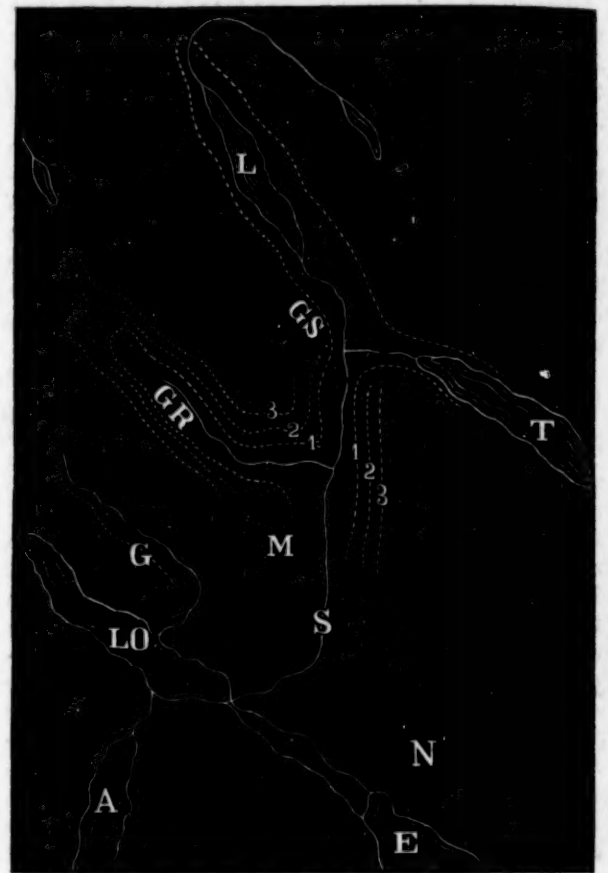
#### AGASSIZ ON THE PARALLEL ROADS OF GLEN ROY.

HAVING in a first notice given Professor Agassiz's description of glacial phenomena, we now come to his account of the evidences furnished by Scotland of the previous existence of glaciers in that country, and especially furnished by the parallel roads of Glen Roy. After attempts to account for their formation on the theory of the formation of lakes by barriers by Mr. Culloch and Sir T. Lauder-Dick, that of continental upheavals and subsidences by Sir Chas. Lyell and Mr. Darwin, that of inundation by great floods maintained by Professor Rogers and Sir G. Mackenzie, and that of glacial action brought forward by Agassiz himself, the matter still remains a moot point. Professor Agassiz remarks:—

"There is not a valley in Switzerland where all these traces are found in greater perfection than

in the valleys of the Scotch Highlands, or of the mountains of Ireland and Wales, or of the lake-region in England. Not a link is wanting to the chain. Polished surfaces, traversed by striae, grooves, and furrows, with a sheet of drift resting immediately upon them, extend throughout the realm,—the *roches moutonnées* raise their rounded backs from the ground there as in Switzerland,—transverse moraines bar their valleys and lateral ones border them, and the boulders from the hillsides are scattered over the plains as thickly as between the Alps and the Jura, and are here and there perched upon the summits of isolated hills. This being the case, let us examine a little more closely the local phenomena connected with the ancient extension of glaciers in this region, and especially the parallel roads of Glen Roy.

"Among the Grampian Hills, a little to the north-east of Ben Nevis, lies the valley of Glen Roy, a winding valley trending in a north-easterly direction, and some ten miles in length. Across the



G. R. Glen Roy.  
M. Moeldhu Hill.  
S. Spean River.  
G. S. Glen Spean.  
L. Loch Laggan.  
T. Loch Treig.  
G. Glen Gloy.  
L. O. Loch Lochy.  
A. Loch Arkelg.  
E. Loch Eil.  
N. Ben Nevis.  
1, 2, 3. The three parallel roads.

mouth of this valley, at right angles with it, runs the valley of Glen Spean, trending from east to west, Glen Roy thus opening directly at its southern extremity into Glen Spean. Around the walls of the Glen Roy valley run three terraces, one above the other, at different heights, like so many roads artificially cut in the sides of the valley, and indeed they go by the name of the 'parallel roads.' These three terraces, though in a less perfect state of preservation, are repeated for a short distance at exactly the same levels on the southern wall of the valley of Glen Spean, just opposite the opening of the Glen Roy valley; that is, they make the whole circuit of Glen Roy, stop abruptly, on both sides, at its southern extremity, and reappear again on the opposite wall of Glen Spean. I should add, however, that all three do not come to this sudden termination; for the lowest of these terraces turns eastward into the valley of Glen Spean, following the whole curve of the eastern half of the valley, while, of the two upper terraces, there is no trace whatever, nor is there any indication that either of the three ever existed in the western half of the valley. When I first visited the region, these phenomena had already been the subject of earnest discussion among English geologists. The commonly accepted explanation of the facts was that these terraces marked ancient sea-levels at a time when the ocean penetrated much farther into the interior, and Glen Roy and the adjoining valleys were as many fiords or estuaries. And, though the present elevation of the locality made such an interpretation improbable at first sight, the first or highest of the terraces being eleven hundred and forty-four feet above the present sea-level, the second eighty-two feet below the first, and the third and lowest two hundred and twelve feet below the second, or eight hundred odd feet above the level of the sea, it was thought that the oscillations of the land, its alternate subsidences and upheavals, proved by the modern results of geology to have been so great and so frequent, might account even for so remarkable a change. There



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are, however, other objections to this theory not so easily explained away. There are no traces of organic life upon these terraces. If they were ancient sea-beaches, we should expect to find upon them the remains of marine animals, shells, crustacea, and the like. All the explanations given to lessen the significance of this absence of organic remains are futile. Again, why should the lower terrace alone be continued into the eastern end of the valley of Glen Spean, while there are no terraces at all in its western part, since both must have been as fully open to the sea as Glen Roy valley itself? This seemed the more inexplicable since all the terraces exist on the valley-wall opposite the outlet of Glen Roy, showing that this sheet of water, wherever it came from, filled the valley itself and the space between it and the southern wall of Glen Spean, but failed to spread, on either side of that space, into the eastern and western extension of Glen Spean. It is evident that, at the time the water filled Glen Roy, some obstruction blocked the valley of Glen Spean, both to the east and west, leaving, however, that space in the centre free into which Glen Roy opens; while, by the time the water had sunk to the level of the lowest terrace, one of these barriers—that to the east—must have been removed; for the lowest terrace, as I have said, is continuous throughout the eastern part of Glen Spean.\*

"Prepossessed as I was with the idea of glacial agency in times anterior to ours, these phenomena appeared to me under a new aspect. I found the bottom of Glen Spean so worn by glacial action as to leave no doubt in my mind that it must have been the bed of a great glacier; and Dr. Buckland fully concurred with me in this impression. Indeed, the face of the country throughout that region presents not only the glacier-marks in great perfection, but other evidences of the ancient presence of glaciers. There are moraines at the lower end of Glen Spean, remodelled, it is true, by the action of currents, but still retaining enough of their ancient character to be easily recognised; and some of the finest examples of the *roches moutonnées* I have seen in Scotland are to be found at the entrance of the valley of Loch Treig, a lateral valley opening into Glen Spean on its southern side, and, as we shall see hereafter, intimately connected with the history of the parallel roads of Glen Roy. These *roches moutonnées* may very fairly be compared with those of the Grimsel, and exhibit all the characteristic features of the Alpine ones. One of them, lying on the western side of the valley where it opens into Glen Spean, is crossed by a trap-dike. The general surface of the hill, consisting of rather soft mica, has been slightly worn down by atmospheric agencies, so that the dike stands out some three-quarters of an inch above it. On the dike, however, the glacier-marks extend for its whole length in great perfection, while they have entirely disappeared from the surrounding surfaces, so as to leave the dike thus standing out in full relief.

"\* Having enumerated the characteristic features of the glacial phenomena in the preceding pages, I throw into this note some explanations which may render my views of the parallel roads more intelligible, not to interrupt again the exposition with details. It would be desirable however, that the reader should first make himself thoroughly familiar with the localities concerned before proceeding any farther. I would therefore state here that, in the woodcut opposite, G. R. indicates the valley of Glen Roy, with the three parallel roads marked 1, 2, 3. Glen Spean is designated by G. S., and the river flowing at its bottom by S. Loch Laggan, out of which the river Spean rises, is marked L. G. indicates Glen Gloy, a little valley to the north-west of Glen Roy, with a single terrace. Loch Treig is designated by T. Loch Lochy by L. O., Loch Arkeig by A., and Moeldhu Hill by M., while E. indicates Loch Eil. The Great Glen of Scotland, through which the Caledonian Canal runs, extends in the direction of L. O. and E. The position of Ben Nevis is designated by N. The dotted-area between N. and M. marks the place occupied by the great glacier of Ben Nevis, when it extended as far as Moeldhu; while the close continuous lines in front of Loch Treig indicate the direction of the glacial scratches left across Glen Spean by the glacier of Loch Treig, when it extended as far as the eastern termination of the two upper terraces. It is far as the eastern termination of the two upper terraces. It ought to be remembered, in this connexion, that the bottom of the valley of the Spean, as well as that of Glen Roy, is occupied by loose materials, partly drift—that is, materials acted upon by glaciers, and partly decomposed fragments of rocks brought down by the torrents, greatly impeding the observation of the polished surfaces. The river-bed is cut through this deposit, and here and there through the underlying rock. Besides the parallel roads, there are also peculiar accumulations of loose materials in Glen Roy and Glen Spean, more particularly connected with the lowest terrace, which Mr. Darwin and Professor Jamieson have shown to be little deltas formed during the existence of the lake of Glen Roy at the bottom of the gullies intersecting the shelves of the upper roads. The outlet for the water at the period during which the second terrace was formed, not known when I visited Glen Roy, has been discovered by Mr. Milne-Holme, and also observed by Professor Jamieson. During the formation of the upper terrace, the waters escaped through the westernmost tributary of the river Spey, in the direction of the north-east corner of the woodcut, and during that of the lowest terrace, at the eastern end of Loch Laggan, also through the valley of the Spey. The state of preservation of the parallel roads is such as to prove that no disturbance of any importance can have taken place in the country since they were formed. Far from believing, therefore, that these remarkable shelves are ancient sea-beaches, I am prepared to maintain that, had the area occupied by them been submerged only for a few days, under an ocean rising and falling for several feet with every tide, no vestige would have been left of their former existence.

This is an instructive case, showing how little disintegration has gone on since the drift-period. All the currents that have swept over it, all the rains that have beaten upon it, have not worn away one inch from the original surface of the hill. I have observed many other *roches moutonnées* in Scotland, especially about the neighbourhood of Loch Awe, Loch Fyne, and Loch Etive. In fact, they may be found in almost all the glens of Scotland, in the lake-region of England, and in the valleys of Wales and Ireland.

"Following the glacial indications wherever we could find them in the country about Glen Roy, it became evident to me that the whole western range of the Grampian Hills had once been a great centre of glaciers; that they had come down toward Glen Spean through all the valleys on the mountain-slopes to the north and south of it—so that this valley had become, as it were, the great drainage-bed for the masses of ice thus poured into it laterally, and moving down the valley from east to west as one immense glacier. It is natural to suppose that, at the breaking-up of the great sheet of ice which, if my view of the case is correct, must have covered the whole country at this time, the ice would yield more readily in a valley like that of Glen Roy, lying open to the south and receiving the full force of the sun, than in those on the opposite side of Glen Spean, opening to the north. At all events, it is evident that, at some time posterior to this universal glacial period, when the ice began to retreat, Glen Roy became the basin of a glacial lake such as we now find in the Alps of Switzerland, where occasionally a closed valley becomes a trough, as it were, into which the water from the surrounding hills is drained. In such a lake no animals are found such as exist in any other sheet of fresh water; and this would account for the absence of any organic remains on the terraces of Glen Roy. But at first sight it seemed that this theory was open in one respect to the same objection as the other. What prevented this sheet of water from spreading east and west in Glen Spean? If it not only filled Glen Roy, but extended to the southern side of Glen Spean immediately opposite the opening of Glen Roy, what prevented it from filling the whole of that valley also? In endeavouring to answer this question I found the solution of the mystery.

"The bed of Glen Spean, through its whole extent from east to west, is marked, as I have said, by glacial action, in rectilinear scratches and furrows. This westward track of the main glacier is crossed transversely near the centre of the valley by two other glacier-tracks cutting it at right angles. Upon tracing these cross-tracks carefully, I became satisfied that, after the surrounding ice had begun to yield, after the masses of ice which descended from the northern and southern slopes of the mountains into Glen Spean had begun to retreat and to form local limited glaciers, two of those lateral glaciers, one coming down from Ben Nevis on the south-west, the other from Loch Treig on the south-east, extended farther than the others, and stretched across Glen Spean.\* These two glaciers for a long time formed

"\* The woodcut is a reproduction of the little map accompanying a paper of mine upon 'The Glacial Theory and its Recent Progress,' printed in the *Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal* for October 1842. I might have greatly improved the topography, and represented more accurately the details of the phenomenon, by availing myself of the much larger and very minute map recently published by Professor Thomas F. Jamieson of Aberdeen; but I thought it advisable to leave my first sketch as I presented it twenty-two years ago, in order to show that Sir Charles Lyell is mistaken in ascribing (see 'Antiquity of Man,' pp. 250, 261) the discovery of the glacier of Loch Treig to Professor Jamieson. A comparison of his statements with mine will show that the solution of the problem offered by him is identical with that proposed by me, as he himself candidly admits (*Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society* for August 1863, p. 239). I have only one fault to find with his observations; and, as I have never revisited the locality since, this remark may satisfy him that my examination of its features was not so hurried as he supposes. Professor Jamieson confounds the effects of two distinct glaciers moving in different valleys as the action of one and the same glacier. In my paper, it is true, I made no allusion to the great glacier of Glen Spean, the existence of which I had recognised along the river from Loch Laggan nearly to the Caledonian Canal. I publish my observations upon this great central glacier for the first time in the present article, having omitted them in my contributions upon this subject to the scientific periodicals of the day, simply because I thought best not to complicate my exposition of the facts concerning the parallel roads by considerations foreign to their origin, convinced as I was, from the manner in which the glacial theory was then received, that they would not be understood, and still less admitted. But, now that all the geologists of Great Britain seem to have given their adhesion to it, I may be permitted to state that I already knew then, what Professor Jamieson has overlooked in his latest paper, that a separate glacier had occupied the valley of the Spean prior to the formation of the parallel roads, and that at that time the glacier of Loch Treig was only a lateral tributary of the same, just as the glacier of the Thierberg is a tributary of the glacier of the Aar. It was not until the Glen Spean glacier had retreated to the hills east of Loch Laggan that the glacier of Loch Treig could form a barrier across Glen Spean, and thus dam the waters in Glen Roy which produced the parallel roads. The marks left by the great Glen Spean glacier in the valley are mistaken by Professor Jamieson for indications that, in its greatest extension, the glacier of Loch Treig not only advanced across Glen Spean, but divided into two branches, one moving westward down Glen Spean, the

barriers across the western and eastern extension of this valley, damming back the waters which filled Glen Roy and the central part of Glen Spean.

"Evidently the glacier descending from Loch Treig was the first to yield; for, by the time the Glen Roy lake had sunk to the level of the lowest terrace, the entrance to the eastern extension of the valley must have been free, otherwise the water could not have spread throughout that basin as we find it did. But it would seem that, by the time the western barrier, or the glacier from Ben Nevis, was removed, the sheet of water was too far reduced to have left permanent marks of its outflow into the Great Glen, except by disturbing and remodelling the large moraines of the older Glen Spean glacier. There are faint indications of other terraces in Glen Roy, even at a higher level than the uppermost parallel road, owing their origin probably to the short duration of a higher level of the glacier-lake, when the great general glacier had not yet been lowered to a more permanent level determined by a limited circumscription within the walls of the valleys. There are other terraces in neighbouring valleys at still different levels—in Glen Roy, for instance, where the one horizontal road was no doubt formed in consequence of the damming of the valley by a glacier from Loch Arkeig. Mr. Darwin has seen another in Glen Kinfillen, which I would explain by the presence of a glacier in the Great Glen, the marks of which are particularly distinct about the eastern end of Glen Garry.

"The evidence of the ancient presence of glaciers is no less striking in other parts of the Scotch Highlands. Between the south-eastern range of the Grampian Hills, in Forfarshire and Perthshire, and the opposite ridge of Sidlaw Hills, stretches the broad valley of Strathmore. At the time when Glen Spean received the masses of ice from the slopes of the western Grampian range, the glaciers descended from the valleys on the southern slope of the south-eastern range and from those on the northern slope of Sidlaw Hills into the capacious bed of the valley which divides them. The glacial phenomena of this region present a striking resemblance in their general relations to those of the Alps and the Jura. The Grampian range on the northern side of Strathmore valley occupies the same position in reference to that of the Sidlaw Hills opposite as does the range of the Alps to that of the Jura, while the intervening valley may be compared to the plain of Switzerland. As from the Bernese Oberland and from the valleys of the Reuss and Limmath gigantic glaciers came down and stretched across the plain of Switzerland to the Jura, scattering their erratic boulders over its summit and upon its slopes at the time of their greater extension, and, as they withdrew into the higher Alpine valleys, leaving them along their retreating track at the foot of the Jura and over the whole plain; so did the glaciers from Glen Prosen and parallel valleys on the Grampian mountains extend across the valley of Strathmore, dropping their boulders not only on the slopes and along the base of the Sidlaw Hills, but scattering them in their retreat throughout the valley, until they were themselves reduced to isolated glaciers in the higher valleys. At the same time, other glaciers came down from the heights of Schihallion on the west, and, descending through the valley of the Tay, joined the great masses of ice in the valley of Strathmore—thus combining with the eastern ice-field, just as the glacier from Mont Blanc and the valley of the Rhône formerly combined in the western part of Switzerland with those of the Bernese Oberland. The relations are identical, though the geographical position is reversed, the higher range, or the Grampian Hills, lying to the north in Scotland, and the lower one, or the Sidlaw Hills, to the South; while, in Switzerland, on the contrary, the higher range lies to the south and the lower to the north. I have alluded especially to Glen Prosen because the glacial marks in that valley

other eastward up Glen Spean, as far as Loch Laggan. Any one sufficiently familiar with existing glaciers to compare their action with the phenomena referred to above will at once see the impossibility of such a course for any glacier coming down from Loch Treig. At the time the Grampians had become a separate centre of glacial action a great glacier must have moved down, towards the Caledonian Canal, through Glen Spean, receiving as tributaries lateral glaciers, not only from Loch Treig and Glen Roy, but also from all the other minor lateral valleys emptying into Glen Spean, the largest of which must have come from the range of Ben Nevis—just as the great glacier of the valley of the Rhône once received as tributaries all the glaciers coming down into that valley from the southern slope of the Bernese Oberland, and from the northern slope of the Valesian Alps, and at one time also from the eastern slopes of the range of Mont Blanc. And, when the large glacier occupying the lower, and therefore warmer, level gradually disappeared and retreated far away to levels where it could maintain itself against the effect of a returning milder climate, the opening spring of our era, as we may call it, the lateral glaciers, arising from the nearer high grounds, could extend across the valleys, but not before.



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are remarkably distinct, the whole bed of the valley being scratched, polished, and furrowed by the great rasp which has moved over it, while the concentric moraines at its lower extremity are very striking. But these signs, so perfectly preserved in Glen Prossen, recur with greater or less intensity in all the corresponding valleys, leaving no doubt that the same phenomena existed over the whole region.

"Among the localities of Scotland where the indications of glacial action are most marked is the region about Stirling. Near Stirling Castle the polished surfaces of the rocks, with their distinct grooves and scratches, show us the path followed by the ice as it moved down in a north-easterly direction toward the Frith of Forth from the mountains on the north-west. To the west of Edinburgh, also, there is a broad glacier-track, showing that here also the ice was ploughing its way eastward to find an outlet on the shore.

"The western slope of the great Scotch range is no less remarkable for its glacier-traces. The heads of Long Long, Loch Fyne, Loch Awe, and Loch Leven everywhere show upon their margins the most distinct glacial polish and furrows; while, from the trend of these marks and the distribution of the moraines, especially about Ben Cruachen, it is obvious that in this part of the country the glaciers moved westward and southward. About Aberdeen, on the contrary, they moved eastward, while in the vicinity of Elgin they advanced toward the north.

"It thus appears that the whole range of the Grampians formed a great centre for the distribution of glaciers, and that a colossal ice-field spread itself over the whole country, extending in every direction toward the lower lands and the sea-shore. As the glaciers which now descend through all the valleys of the Alps, along their northern as well as their southern slopes, and in their eastern as well as their western prolongation, though limited, in our days, within the valley-walls, nevertheless once covered the plain of Switzerland and that of Northern Italy, so did the ice-fields of the Grampians during the greatest extension of the Scotch glaciers spread over the whole country. They also were, in course of time, reduced to local glaciers, circumscribed within the higher valleys of the more mountainous parts of the country, until they totally disappeared, as those of Switzerland would also have done had it not been for the greater elevation of that country above the level of the sea. Scotland nowhere rises above the present level of perpetual snow, while in Switzerland the whole Alpine range has an altitude favourable to the preservation of glaciers. In the range of the Jura, however, which had at one time its local glaciers also, but which nowhere now rises above the line of perpetual snow, they have disappeared as completely as in the Grampian Hills.

Professor Agassiz, in conclusion, and in support of his theory, points out some other distinct areas of distribution observed by him in Great Britain. "The region surrounding Ben Wyvis formed such a centre of dispersion from which glaciers radiated, and we have another in the Pentland Hills about Edinburgh. In Northumberland the Cheviot Hills present a glacial centre of the same kind, and in the Westmoreland Hills we have still another. In the last-named locality the glacial tracks can be followed in various directions, some of them descending toward the north-west from the heights of Helvellyn, others moving southward toward Ambleside. In Wales the same kind of glacial distribution has been observed; but, as Professor Ramsay has treated this subject in full, I would refer my readers to his masterly work for a further account of the ancient Welsh glaciers. In Ireland I had also opportunities of making extensive local investigations of glacial action. I observed the centres of distribution in the neighbourhood of Belfast, in the county of Wicklow, and in Cavan. But nowhere are these phenomena more striking than in Fermanagh county, about the neighbourhood of Enniskillen, and more especially in the immediate vicinity of Florence Court, the seat of the Earl of Enniskillen. On the northern slope of Ben Calcagh are five valleys lying parallel with each other and opening into the valley of Loch Nilly, which runs from east to west at the base of the mountain. A road now passes through this valley, and, where it crosses the mouth of either of the five valleys rising towards the mountain-slope, it cuts alternately through the two horns of a crescent-shaped wall which bars the lower end of every one of them. These crescent-shaped mounds are so many terminal moraines built up by the five glaciers formerly descending through these lateral valleys into the valley of Loch Nilly.

They bore the same relation to each other as the glaciers de Tour and d'Argentière, the Glacier des Bois with the Mer de Glace, the Glacier des Bossons and the Glacier de Taconet, now bear to each other in the valley of Chamouni; and, were it not for the smaller dimensions of the whole, any one familiar with the tracks of ancient glaciers might easily fancy himself crossing the ancient moraines at the foot of the northern slope of the range of Mont Blanc, through which the Arve has cut its channel, the valley of Chamouni standing in the same relation to Mont Blanc as the valley of Loch Nilly does to Ben Calcagh."

#### ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF DARK LINES IN THE SPECTRA OF THE ELEMENTS.

IN the last number of *Silliman's Journal* is a paper under the above title by Professor Hinrichs, who enunciates the following laws as a result of an extended examination of the distribution of the lines in many spectra. We must refer our readers to the paper itself for the particulars.

I. The mutual distances of the different lines in each separate group are multiples of the smallest distance in such group.

II. The intervals in the different groups may be expressed in very simple numbers—as 1, 2, 3.

III. The difference in wave-length between the corresponding lines in a group is the same throughout the whole spectrum.

IV. The principal corresponding lines or groups of lines are equidistant in regard to their wave-lengths.

As far as the observations are now at hand, the above four laws seem to point to the following one, including them all:—

The dark lines of any element are regularly distributed over all the spectrum, in equidistant groups consisting of equidistant lines; but the intensity of these lines regularly increases and diminishes, so as to obliterate a number of lines and even of groups, thus producing gaps in the regular series, gaps which only by high optical powers—intense line of light and great condensing lens—can be completed.

Such observations, therefore, are most ardently desired, and it seems urgent to construct telescopes for this particular purpose.

If we, in the preceding, have succeeded in making the regularity of the apparently highly irregular lines probable—for they certainly show definite and simple laws in their distribution—it may naturally be asked, What causes this distribution, and what will probably be the reward of continued researches in this direction?

The lines can only have one of the following two sources:—they are either produced by the dimensions of the solid particles or by the intervals between them—i.e., their distances. The latter is impossible; for these lines remain absolutely the same under such different circumstances as cannot but to some extent change the mutual distance of the particles. Hence the lines must be produced by the bulk of the particles or atoms themselves, and an exact knowledge of these laws and distances must lead us to a knowledge of the relative dimensions of the atoms, both as to length, breadth, and thickness. Thus optics will give us the form and size as chemistry has given us the weight of the atoms. The remarkable result attained by comparing the distance between the calcium groups (4.8) and the barium groups (4.4) seems to show that one dimension of the atoms of these two elements is nearly—or if the above values should be found to be exactly equal—perfectly equal. How great the interest of such determinations is, in regard to the constitution of the elementary bodies, needs not to be accentuated. It may yet lead to an experimental demonstration of the existence of a primitive substance, the element of the elements.

How the dimensions of the atoms produce these lines is another question, and it is very difficult even merely to suggest any probable connecting link between the dimension of the atoms and the luminous wave. But this cannot be any serious obstacle to the practical application to the analysis of the elements; for so the alkalis were decomposed by electricity, although the casual connexion manifested therein is but imperfectly known, even at the present day.

But, however this may be, we hope those physicists who are favoured by the necessary delicate apparatus will find in this unpretending preliminary investigation sufficient inducement to test and, as we think probable, to confirm and complete the result here deduced from the existing observations—that the dark lines of the spectra of elementary bodies are regularly distributed.

#### ON THE INFLUENCE OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM ON THE RESPIRATION OF INSECTS.

THE influence of the nervous system on the respiration of insects for some reason or another has occupied the attention of physiologists very little until only a few years ago, when M. Faivre undertook his well-known researches on the *Dytiscus*. M. Baudelot has recently investigated the subject, and at the meeting of the French Academy on the 20th of June gave an account of the results at which he has arrived.

M. Faivre's researches—at least, accepting his interpretation of them—led him to admit that, with the *Dytiscus*, as with mammalia, the respiratory motions have their origin in a special region of the nervous system; this region, in the case of the *Dytiscus*, would correspond to the metathoracic ganglion, the function of which would be to induce the respiratory movements and to co-ordinate and support them. The posterior abdominal movements which accompany respiration would be, on the contrary, under the influence of the sub-oesophagian ganglion. As to the abdominal ganglia, the origin of the respiratory nerves, M. Faivre's notion of them is that they simply act as conductors relatively to the respiratory centre or metathoracic ganglion: they cannot, after the separation of the thoracic centres, support breathing.

M. Baudelot, having for some time past directed his attention to the comparative physiology of the nervous system, was struck with the results brought to light by M. Faivre, and with their complete antagonism as much to the generally-received notions with regard to the functions of the nervous system of the *Articulata* as to the prior experiments of M. E. Blanchard upon the nervous system of the *Arachnida*. He therefore resolved to proceed with the inquiry; and, as it is somewhat difficult to experiment on the *Dytiscus*, he chose the larva of the *Libellula* for examination.

This larva has a nervous chain formed of a series of twelve ganglia, all perfectly separated one from another. The metathoracic ganglion is united to the first abdominal one by long attachments—an arrangement which allows the two ganglia to be easily separated; the respiratory motions are also easily seen: they are rendered evident in two different ways—first, by the depression and elevation of the lower rings of the abdomen; and, secondly, by the separation and *rapprochement* of the five appendices situated at the extremity of the last ring.

M. Baudelot then narrates the results of the experiments. The first experiment, made at mid-day, was the section of the head. The insect was breathing regularly, at the rate of twenty-six inspirations a minute; at 6 p.m. the respiratory motions were still strong and regular; the next day, at 9 a.m., breathing was still perceptible, although very faint, and it was not extinct until about 3 p.m.

From this experiment it may be certainly concluded that it is not in the cerebral lobes that the principal action of the respiratory motion exists; the destruction of the cerebroid ganglia, suppressing thereby the intervention of the will, would seem only to modify a little the rhythm of the breath, which becomes less capricious and more regular.

In a second experiment, made at 2 p.m., M. Baudelot tied a ligature a little behind the metathorax, and made a section of the body immediately in front of it, taking away the metathoracic ganglion at 4 o'clock, p.m.: the number of inhalations increased to eighteen a minute; the breathing at the same time was not quite regular. The next day, at 3 p.m., it was quite possible to catch some respiratory motion.

In a third experiment, the ligature and the section having been made at the fifth ring of the abdomen, the respiratory motions, although they were very faint and had become irregular, still kept on for more than twenty-four hours. The half of the body anterior to the section contained the portion of the nervous cord which extends from the head to the fifth abdominal ganglion exclusively.

Thus it would appear that the metathoracic ganglion is not the prime mover of the respiratory motions. The same experiments were repeated upon an adult *Libellula*, and the result was equally conclusive. The complete section of the body anterior to the metathoracic ganglion does not lead to a more complete suspension of the respiratory motions in the half behind the section. So, when a ligature was made, and subsequently a section behind the second ring of the abdomen,



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the breathing motions lasted for eight hours; the inhalations, very regular, increased to about fifty in a minute: nevertheless, the metathoracic ganglion had been severed with the anterior segment.

After detailing some other experiments, M. Banelot remarks that all these results, and others of quite a similar kind, made on the grubs of *Dytiscus*, probably of the genus *Colymbetes*, seem to prove that, with insects, the respiratory motions are not as is the case with Vertebrata under the control of a special nervous centre. Each abdominal ganglion, on the contrary, supplies nerve-force, and co-operates as far as it can to the accomplishment of the respiratory action of the whole. And it is also remarkable that, after the section of the nervous cord, the isolated action of a ganglion appears to be by so much weaker when it is united to a smaller number of other ganglionic elements.

To sum up, experiment confirms here what anatomy might have led us to imagine. When one takes into consideration the divisions in the rings of the body and of the abdomen in the *Articulata*, a division frequently so much in harmony with the nervous element—when one sees in Crustacea the breathing apparatus occupy so many varied positions, now at the level of the thorax, now of the abdomen, and sees them receive nerves from so many different points—it was hardly possible to admit that insects have a special nervous centre for the function of respiration.

## SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

At the last meeting of the French Academy MM. Pelouze and Maurey presented a long memoir on gun-cotton, in which they state their opinion—which results from their long examination—that that explosive compound, if better known as far as its composition, mode of production, and properties are concerned, is still, with regard to its employment in fire-arms, in the same position as it was in 1846. "Nothing, in fact, authorizes us to believe that it is possible, in the present state of our knowledge, either to prevent its spontaneous combustion or to correct in a practical manner its liability to burst the weapons at present used for gunpowder."

We give, in the proceedings of the Berlin Academy, an abstract of a paper by Professor Helmholtz on the Muscular Susurrus, which is of the highest interest, inasmuch as he has brought the induction current to bear upon its investigation.

MR. WOODS, in the *Philosophical Magazine* for August, thus refers to Professor Roscoe's researches on the chemical brightness of the sun's disc, which have already been noticed in our columns:—"The chemically-active rays decrease in intensity from the centre to the circumference, which the Professor found by exposing a prepared paper in a camera to the action of the sun's picture, and comparing the shade of tint produced thereby at the centre and at the circumference with a certain standard. I would, however, suggest the plan I described in this magazine in July 1854. It consists in exposing the prepared paper to the sun's picture in the camera for a period so short that the centre or most active rays only have time to act on it; then, for the next impression, to leave the paper exposed for a somewhat longer time, so that a somewhat larger picture is obtained; and so on until the entire picture is given. For instance, suppose the sun's picture is divided into zones by concentric circles, and suppose the centre rays could affect the prepared paper in one second, the second zone in two seconds, the third in three seconds, and the circumference in four; then, by exposing the paper for these periods of time, a corresponding amount of the disk would be obtained; the size of the impression produced would be in proportion to the time of exposure; and the intensity of the rays from any part of the disk would be more accurately fixed by once getting the time required for their action, and more permanently, I fancy, than by the use of the standard tints. This was the plan I adopted in 1854 to show the identity of the sun's action on a photographic surface with that of flame, the centre rays of the latter being also more intense in chemical action than those at the circumference."

M. VIGNES, lieutenant in the Imperial navy, who accompanied the Duc de Luynes in his Syrian explorations, is at Beyrout, preparing to visit Palmyra during the present month for the purpose of determining astronomically the position of that city.

We learn from the *Mining and Smelting Magazine* that the Glasgow School of Mines is to be abandoned, the anticipated subscriptions from the coal and ironmasters not having been forthcoming.

This result has been long foreseen; and a similar fate may soon be expected to overtake the two or three institutions of a similar character which are now dragging on a precarious existence in some of our mining districts. The subject of the practical education of our mining population is one of great importance; and everything which can in any way tend to the development of the usefulness of the Central School in Jermyn Street should be warmly welcomed.

M. BURNOURF recommends in *Le Béliet*, a French journal of agriculture, the following method of preserving eggs:—Dissolve in 3ds of warm olive oil 1d of beeswax, and cover each egg completely with a thin layer of this pomade with the end of the finger. The egg-shell by degrees absorbs the oil, and each of its pores becomes filled with the wax, which hermetically seals them. M. Burnouf affirms that he has eaten eggs kept two years in this manner in a place not exposed to too great extremes of temperature. He thinks also that the germ may in this manner be preserved for a considerable time.

THE *Notice Historique sur Félix Dujardin*, recently delivered by M. Pierre Gratiolet at the annual meeting of the *Société des Amis des Sciences*, is now published, and is well worthy perusal. Nothing can surpass the feeling and the judgment with which M. Gratiolet discourses on the life and works of the great naturalist.

THE *Hindoo Patriot* of the 27th June publishes the proceedings of the first annual meeting of the Mahomedan Literary Society. This Society, which owes its origin to the zealous efforts of Moulvee Abdool Luteef, was originally established as an experiment; and, knowing the dislike of the Mahomedans for European knowledge and science, and the absence of organized effort among them for any useful or literary purpose, there were many who did not feel very sanguine of the success of the new institution. The *Patriot* adds, "The single-minded zeal of Moulvee Abdool Luteef has rendered the Society a decided and complete success. With a view to hold out to the Society every encouragement in our power, we readily and cheerfully opened our columns to its monthly proceedings; and it affords us not a little satisfaction to see what was originally started as an experiment is now a *fait accompli*. The Mahomedan community is deeply indebted to Moulvee Abdool Luteef for this laudable and enlightened undertaking, and we are not a little glad to see that his effort has been seconded by equally worthy men. Moonshee Ameër Ali and Moulvee Azin-Ooddeen Hossein took an active part at the last annual meeting in giving the Society a permanent footing; and we hope they will not relax their zeal in furthering the good work, which is calculated much to improve their national prospects in India, and materially benefit the rising generation of Mahomedan youth."

WE learn from the *Medical Times* that Dr. Brown-Séquard's visit to America is likely to be converted into a permanent residence there, after having abandoned the positions he had successively acquired in Paris and London. He has received an appointment to the Chair of Physiology and Pathology of the Nervous System (created, we presume, expressly for him) at the Harvard University, Boston.

M. DEISS, one of the largest manufacturers of bisulphate of carbon in France, has invented an apparatus containing hydrate of lime, which absorbs the waste sulphuretted hydrogen given off during the process. At the suggestion of M. Payen, M. Deiss has substituted for the lime sesquioxide of iron mixed with sawdust. The products resulting are water and sulphur, the latter being recovered by simple washing with bisulphide of carbon and subsequent distillation. The oxide of iron is then calcined, and is once more ready for use. The idea has, of course, been taken from the method of gas purification, now adopted by many companies, but the application is new.

WE learn from the *Russische Revue* that the map now being prepared by MM. Schwartz and Ussolow will considerably modify our ideas as to the topography of Eastern Siberia.

## SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENCE.

### MR. MELVILLE BELL'S "VISIBLE SPEECH."

Colney Hatch Park, 29th August, 1864.

THE problem of a universal alphabet has been for some time recognised as possessing considerable importance linguistically, and even politically, as well as for missionary purposes. The "Standard Alphabet" of Professor Lepsius, with

the various important disquisitions by the same author in the Berlin Transactions, and its adoption by the English Church Missionary Society, is at once an important contribution towards the solution of the problem and evidence of the interest attaching to it. It certainly is not a solution. The great number and the cumbrousness of its symbols, which are overlaid with diacritical points and marks, render its use so inconvenient that it has been practically split up into several alphabets by those who use it. Nor is the physiological explanation of the sounds complete or quite satisfactory as far as it goes. Professor Max Müller, whose "Missionary Alphabet" was presented to Chevalier Bunsen's Conference at the same time as Professor Lepsius's, has lately republished it under the name of a "Physiological Alphabet," in which, however, he has intentionally omitted many shades of sound; so that, for example, it would not suffice for rendering English and French dialects. Professor Haldeman of America, in his "Analytic Orthography," has shown a surprisingly delicate appreciation of distinctions of sound, and has furnished materials which all subsequent alphabetarians should study, especially with respect to the North-American Indian languages. The discoveries of Professor Czermak respecting the Arabic gutturals as brought to light by his laryngoscope, and those of Professor Helmholtz concerning the real constitution of vowel-sounds as qualities of tone, are the most recent contributions to the philosophy of the subject. In my own "Universal Writing" I had given a classification of upwards of ninety sounds requiring characters; and Professor Brücke of Vienna has since somewhat increased the number, and contributed importantly to their physiological classification and explanation. Still the problem was unsolved. We had not a complete physiological analysis of speech so that we could indicate a sound thus:—vocal organs in general position No. 1, modified by actions Nos. 1, 3, 5, &c. (as the case may be). If we had, we might evidently not only write all existing sounds by a comparatively few symbols indicating the "general positions," and others indicating the "modifying actions," but by these symbols again we might also express varieties of sound yet unheard, and lead the reader to form his own conception of them, and actually so to pronounce them as to be intelligible to those who used them as native sounds. This would be apparently the solution of the problem. It would consist of two parts—the discovery of the physiology of each sound, as it may be termed, and the invention of convenient symbols to express the general positions and modifying actions. These symbols should be adapted to printing and writing, and, in these days especially, to telegraphy.

Now Mr. Melville Bell of Edinburgh claims to have completely solved the problem. This gentleman has long been known in Edinburgh for his treatment of defects of utterance, and his exact and delicate appreciation of sounds. His works are full of important observations on the analysis of speech-sounds. I have been long acquainted with them and can attest their value. This previous successful study of twenty years' duration is important in the estimation of the value of his claim, while the discovery and invention themselves are yet kept secret. Mr. Bell has submitted his project to Government, and awaits its decision before publishing his scheme. But he has given several "demonstrations;" and the daily papers have lately had some prominent articles on the subject. As Mr. Bell has been kind enough to favour me with a private demonstration, and as my long alphabetic studies have given me the means of testing the pretensions of any such system, I think it may be interesting to your readers to know the result. Mr. Bell did not show me his alphabet, but stated that it consisted of only thirty-four distinct and separate characters, each of which would be printed by a separate type placed side by side in the usual way, without any diacritical points or marks, such as those which disfigure Lepsius's alphabet, or any insertions over or under, as in Arabic and Hebrew. The present "lower case," or small-letter alphabet, also consists of 34 types, exclusive of marks of punctuation—namely, the 26 letters and the 8 signs *f*, *fi*, *ff*, *ffl*, *fi*, *a*, *w*, *g*; so that there would be no necessity to have larger cases. I have no doubt that some of Mr. Bell's characters represent the general positions, and others the modifying actions just spoken of; but this is only a surmise, and I have received no direct information on the subject. Mr. Bell has not yet perfected a flowing writing-character, and so had to write slowly by imitating the typographical forms. He has, however, been enabled to form a code of



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telegraphic signals to represent his characters. The mode of procedure was as follows:—Mr. Bell sent his two sons, who were to read his writing, out of the room—it is interesting to know that the eldest, who read all the words in this case, had only had five weeks' instruction in the use of the alphabet—and I dictated slowly and distinctly the sounds which I wished to be written. These consisted of a few words in Latin, pronounced first as at Eton, then as in Italy, and then according to some theoretical notions of how the Latins might have uttered them. Then came some English provincialisms and affected pronunciations, the words "how odd" being given in several distinct ways. Suddenly German provincialisms were introduced. Then discriminations of sounds often confused, as *ees, is* (Polish), *eesh, ich* (German), *ich* (Dutch), *ich* (Swiss), *oui* (French), *we* (English), *wie* (German), *vie* (French). Some Arabic, some Cockney-English with an introduced Arabic guttural, some mispronounced Spanish, and a variety of shades of vowels and diphthongs. The sudden changes and the confusion would utterly prevent any one from guessing by the context, and the distinctions of vowel-sounds would be very difficult either to seize or to imitate except by persons thoroughly used to appreciate such sounds, or led by a strictly physiological system of symbolization to conceive and utter them. These are two distinct processes. To appreciate and symbolize the sounds is far more difficult than to utter them from the symbolization. It is a difficulty which is inseparable from all alphabetic systems; but it is gradually overcome by exercise in the use of a physiological alphabet, which leads the ear and the organs gradually and decisively to the right result. Mr. Bell's sons can read; but they have yet much to learn in writing. Mr. Bell himself has a most delicate power of appreciating, and therefore considerable facility in writing. Few persons would arrive at such ease without a similar course of study. Even with the assistance of a physiological alphabet we could not look for many examples of such delicate perception.

After the writing was complete the sons were called in, and read it. They read it, of course, slowly. They had an unfamiliar combination of letters in each word. They evidently spelled it mentally, placing their organs in the modified positions, and then uttered the sounds. They made a few mistakes, as was natural; but they corrected them without further assistance than my saying that they were wrong. Occasionally—very seldom—they declared that they uttered the sound that was written. Mr. Bell said in these cases that what they said was what he heard. In each case, the sons being sent away, he re-wrote the word from my dictation; and then the sons read it correctly.

The result was perfectly satisfactory—that is, Mr. Bell wrote down my queer and purposely-exaggerated pronunciations and mispronunciations and delicate distinctions in such a manner that his sons, not having heard them, so uttered them as to surprise me by the extremely correct echo of my own voice. I have made it my business for twenty-one years to study alphabetical systems. I do not know one which could have produced the same results. I do not know one which could have written every sound I used. So far, then, as I am able to judge, Mr. Bell has solved the problem. Not having been able to study the principles of his system, I am unable to appreciate it in its entirety. He states that he has written a variety of languages to the satisfaction of natives. From what I have seen, I am disposed to think that there is no exaggeration in this statement. I know, indeed, that we are all inclined to be satisfied with a tolerably decent imitation of our sounds by a foreigner; and our testimonials as to their powers of speech are often exaggerated. In my own testing I was not satisfied with approximations, and I obtained correct imitations. Accent, tone, drawl, brevity, indistinctness, were all reproduced with surprising accuracy. Being on the watch, I could, as it were, trace the alphabet in the lips of the readers. I think, then, that Mr. Bell is justified in the somewhat bold title which he has assumed for his mode of writing—"Visible Speech." I only hope that, for the advantage of linguists, such an alphabet may be soon made accessible, and that, for the intercourse of nations, it may be adopted generally, at least for extra-European nations—as for the Chinese dialects and the several extremely diverse Indian languages, where such an alphabet would rapidly become a great social and political engine.

ALEXANDER J. ELLIS.

## THE MOLECULAR STRUCTURE OF MATTER.

Manse, Moffat, N.B., August 30.

THE author of "The Analogy of Thought and Nature," in his statement of my theory of molecules in your last, has invested that theory with a mathematical precision and a seeming beauty to which it has no claims, and of which I am anxious to divest it, especially as that gentleman declines to give it the benefit of his vote as a true account of nature and the view that he gives of it is wholly fanciful. Speaking of the formula by which I deduce the specific gravities of liquids and solids, he says that I multiply by a fraction whose denominator represents a sphere—i.e., the thirty-six elements of water-vapour which I suppose to exist in a molecule of water, and whose numerator represents the number of sides in one or both of the regular solids which come nearest to a sphere, meaning the dodecahedron and the icosahedron. Now, according to my theory, the forms of (the volumes or atmospheres of) molecules whose nuclei consist whether of twelve or of twenty chemical or æriform elements simple or compound are spherical no less than that of a particle of water—which, indeed, is spherical only at the temperature of the maximum density of water, being spheroidal both above and below, prolate in the one case, oblate in the other.

Mr. Neale also says that, dropping the special numbers, my discovery amounts to this—that, if the space occupied by a molecule of water be taken as unity, the spaces occupied by a molecule of any other liquid or solid will be nearly  $\frac{3}{4}$ ths,  $\frac{5}{8}$ ths, or  $\frac{3}{5}$ ths of this space, or some dual multiple or quotient of these fractions. "Such is the law of combining (molecular?) volume for solids and fluids suggested by Dr. Macvicar." Now I find myself quite a stranger to this law. It is the product of the author's analysis and construction of my observations, and I desire to award to him the entire credit of it. What I maintain is that, just as in the case of æriform bodies, so in the case of liquid and solid bodies, the unities or molecules into which their æriform constituents tend to form themselves are either isovoluminous or in what I have called dichotomous ratio. I am, in this case, at nothing more than the application and extension of the known to the unknown in chemistry, and, in general, at nothing more than the application and extension of the data of pure geometry to the dynamic system of the universe.

The denominator of the fraction which gives specific gravities to water as unity is, of course, a molecule and unit volume of water. Now this, in our theory, when rendered homogeneous with the numerator (the coefficient of which is most frequently 12), is, in our notation,  $(\text{OHaqHO})_{12}$ , the constituent element of the dodecatom being a symmetrical combination which the popular chemist can only represent as  $3\text{HO}$ . And here, too, (as in every case that I am required to specialize) evidence presents itself in favour of the theory of molecules which I advocate. And I am sure that other minds of philosophic habits and pursuits like Mr. Neale must agree with him that the relations which I have pointed out deserve serious attention.

Thus, on comparing our molecule and unit volume of water  $(\text{OHaqHO})_{12} = (3\text{HO})_{12} = 36\text{aq}$  with any ordinary dodecatom, say  $\text{X}_{12}$ , the former ought obviously to give a volume of vapour three times as large as the latter. Now, in making experiments in the hope of constructing some kind of vapour-engine that would be more economical than the steam-engine, it has been found that, while water gives from 1700 to 1728 vols. of steam, according to estimate, alcohol, when its vapour has been equalized as to temperature with steam, gives about 570 vols., ether about 285, and oil of turpentine about 193. This was a great disappointment, and in the actual chemistry it is a great mystery. But, in our theory of molecules, it completely explains itself. Thus the third part of 1700 or 1728 is 567 or 576. And this is at once the vapour-volume of alcohol. Ether, in the state of vapour, is (in relation to its formula in the liquid state, as is well known to chemists) in a state of double density; so that, to render it in the state of vapour analogous in structure to steam and alcohol vapours, its volume must be doubled. Now  $2 \times 285 = 570$ , again  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the volume of steam. With regard to the hydrocarbon, its formula being  $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{16} = (\text{C}_5\text{H}_4)_4$ , there is indicated as the liquid molecule or unit volume not either of the two most perfect of the geometrical solids, the dodecahedron or the icosahedron, but the simplest of all—viz., the tetrahedron (which is also found in some other substances in which

hydrogen and æriform elements are in great excess). In order, therefore, to bring the hydrocarbon up to the dodecatom and find the equivalent vapour-volume for oil of turpentine, we must multiply by 3, for it requires 3 tetratoms to give one dodecatom. Now  $3 \times 193 = 579$ , again nearly enough  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the volume of water. And so on.

JOHN G. MACVICAR.

## THE SHAKESPEARE FOLIOS AT WARWICK.

Greenhithe, August 27, 1864.

HAVING been responsible for the arrangement of the early books and MSS. in the Museum of the Archaeological Institute at Warwick, I may perhaps be allowed to add a few remarks to the portion of your able account of that exhibition which refers to the Shakespearian volumes.

Lord Leigh exhibited specimens of the first, second, and third, and Mr. Beresford Hope of the first, second, third, and fourth folio editions. Copies of the first, third, and fourth folios were contributed by myself. Of these last, the folio of 1623 was purchased at the sale of the library of the Duke of Sussex. It is quite perfect, but short, and the title-page, which contains the portrait, may possibly have been taken from another copy of the same date. The folio exhibited by her Majesty's gracious permission is a fine copy of the second (not the fourth) edition, and has the handwriting of George III. in addition to the autographs described in THE READER. It is also highly interesting as being the identical volume referred to in these words by Milton in his "Iconoclastes":—"I shall not instance an abstruse writer wherein the king might be less conversant, but one whom we well know was the closest companion of these his solitudes—William Shakespeare."

The folio exhibited by Mr. J. Gough Nichols is a good copy of the second (not the fourth) edition; and the quarto, "Taming of the Shrew," was contributed by Mr. Staunton, and not, as stated in THE READER, by

J. FULLER RUSSELL.

[We thank Mr. Russell for his corrections, which, however, have already been noticed at p. 237.—ED.]

## PROCEEDINGS OF FOREIGN ACADEMIES. BERLIN.

Academy of Sciences, May 2.—M. Trendelenburg brought forward some "Proofs of the Post-Aristotelian Composition of the *Magna Moralia*."

May 12.—M. Kronecker read a long mathematical memoir "On the Employment of Dirichlet's Methods in the Theory of Quadratic Forms," and Professor Peters exhibited a young specimen of *Cacilia glutinosa* (*Epicurium hypocyanum*), possessing branchial apertures, from Malacca. The specimen is of the same size as that in the Leyden Museum in which Johannes Müller first detected the branchial apertures—namely,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches in length. These apertures are situated about one-twelfth of the total length from the point of the snout. They are not, as shown in Hasselt's figure, in the middle of the yellow streak, but at its upper margin. There are two apertures of nearly equal length on each side: in the larger specimen in the Museum of Vienna the anterior aperture is one-half the size of its companion. No external branchiæ are present, but the skin about and between the orifices is raised and somewhat irregular, probably indicating their previous existence. The eyes are more distinct than in the adult, and in front of each of them is an angular depression much larger than the labial pore. The anus is  $3\frac{1}{2}$  millimètres from the hinder end of the body, which is compressed and surrounded by a membranous fin extending  $7\frac{1}{2}$  millimètres up the back.—M. Rudorff communicated some notes on an old library of printed and manuscript books on law and theology belonging to the church of St. Nicholas in Greifswald.

May 23.—M. Borchardk read a paper "On the Application of the Theory of Multipliers of higher Orders to Isoperi-Metrical Differential Equations," and Professor Helmholtz communicated some "Experiments on the Muscular Susurrus." Professor Helmholtz states that the susurrus may be heard, under circumstances which exclude the notion of the phenomenon of sound being produced by the friction of the ear or stethoscope upon the skin covering the muscle examined, by stopping the ears closely with plugs of sealing-wax or wet paper, and then strongly contracting the



muscles of the head, especially the massetus. The sound may be produced not only by the powerful massetus, pterygoids and temporals, but also by some of the smaller muscles of the face. The sound perceived on the contraction of these muscles is essentially of the same character, but louder, more distinct, and clearer than that heard when the stethoscope is applied over the contracted muscles of the arm. The musical tone of the muscular susurrus was found by Dr. Haughton to correspond sometimes with the C of 32, sometimes with D of 36 vibrations: 35 to 36 was Wollaston's highest estimate. Professor Helmholtz obtains the same result from his masticatory muscles; the tone of the weaker facial muscles is deeper. By repeating his observations in such a manner that the muscles were set in motion, not by his will, but by an induction apparatus of 130 oscillations, he obtained the following results:—When the apparatus was in another room, and therefore directly inaudible, he applied the electrodes to his masseter, so as to set it in a state of powerful contraction, and immediately heard the tone of the oscillating spring of the induction apparatus. That the tone proceeded from the contracted muscle was shown by the fact that it was not heard until the current was strong enough to cause the contraction of the muscle. The same tone was also heard by means of the stethoscope from the muscles of the arm of a young man contracted by the induction current. To avoid the possibility that the current might directly cause the concussion of the muscle, like that of an extended wire, it was passed through the median nerve of the upper arm, and so much weakened that, when directly applied upon the muscles, it did not influence them. When the action of the current upon the nerve was strong enough to cause the contraction of the muscles of the fore-arm, the tone of the apparatus was distinctly heard from them. These experiments remove all doubt as to the existence of a peculiar muscular susurrus dependent upon the state of contraction of the muscle, and, at the same time, throw a fresh light upon the conditions of muscular action. Professor Helmholtz remarks that, in his investigations upon the perception of tones, he was compelled to assume the possibility of about 130 distinct excitations in the second for the auditory nerves. At the time he had no apparatus capable of producing more than 130 regular oscillations; but, by interrupting the current by a tuning-fork of 120 vibrations, he heard in the muscle the tone of 240 vibrations—the higher octave of the tone of the fork, apparently produced by the simultaneous action of the 120 openings and closings of the circuit. Moreover, by placing tuning-forks between the limbs of electro-magnets and passing the bow over them, electrical currents may be produced in the coils of the electro-magnets and frogs' legs brought into a state of tetanus; Professor Helmholtz has found that 600 complete oscillations in a second may produce tetanus, although he has been unable to detect sonorous vibrations of the muscles of frogs.

May 26.—M. Weber read a paper "On the Râma Upanishad."

## ART.

### MR. HENRY BICKNELL'S COLLECTION.

THE Crystal Palace Company have lately added to their large exhibition of pictures the collection of Mr. Henry Bicknell, which has been temporarily placed at their disposal for the benefit of the public. This collection consists of about a hundred works, chiefly sketches; and exhibited with them are ten sketches by Mr. David Roberts, which are retained by the artist as personal property, and may be looked upon as model illustrations of his style. These pictures are shown together, in a room apart from the 1700 pictures which make up the ordinary contents of the picture-gallery, amongst which they would have been lost. By most visitors, indeed, they are probably overlooked: the scale of the Palace is so enormous, and its attractions are so numerous and overpowering, that most heads are rather bewildered than instructed by its contents.

The size of the building is a fault in art. The general effect, as we look along the nave, is delightful, enchanting; in the first aspect we experience the most enjoyable sensation; but every succeeding effort of the mind to grapple with the varied contents of the building is, in most cases, a multiplication of weariness. Designed for general entertainment rather than for special reference, the crowds who frequent it greedily fall upon the abundant feast prepared for

them; what wonder if they naturally experience the results of overfeeding, and finally leave the Palace with nothing but a confused sense of spinning-jennies, Greek statues, fountains, and pork-pies—glad to get home and sleep it off.

The spirit of true enjoyment is to be found in a limited field. The eye experiences a luxury of delight in contemplating a bordered bed of scarlet geraniums on a lawn exposed to the blaze of the setting sun; but, if it be doubled by the presence of a contiguous bed of exactly similar proportions and arrangement, our enjoyment will be lessened just in proportion as the eye is disturbed by the juxtaposition. We may increase the number to twenty, and we shall not thereby extend our capability of enjoyment. All large exhibitions are infractions of the law of temperance, which is as necessary to be observed in our mental gratifications as it is for the sake of our bodily health. The museums of Great Russell Street and South Kensington would be intolerable as mere exhibitions, although full of materials for instruction and entertainment; but, unlike the Crystal Palace, these institutions were founded to embrace rare collections for purposes of study and reference in the first place; and to these purposes the mere amusement of the numerous visitors who frequent them is rightly subordinated. The size of the Crystal Palace, the extent of its gardens, the expense attendant upon the display of the system of fountains, are very grand things to see and to talk about; but they are conditions that impose infinite difficulties upon the directors, who must provide for the amusement of their visitors on a scale governed by the dimensions of the building. Thus we have monster concerts, which only a few people can properly hear; a display of waterworks which, lasting only for a quarter of an hour, is over before half the visitors can be brought together from the ends of the building to witness it; a gallery containing two thousand pictures which no one attempts seriously to examine; moderation is unknown; and, in the midst of unknown beauties and undiscovered treasures, the public cry ever for novelties, dog-shows, poultry-shows, balloon-ascents, hippodromes, tight-rope dancers—anything that shall relieve them from the weariness incidental to the scale of the place.

It is pleasant to escape from the unrest which we all more or less experience in this vast place of entertainment to some quiet corner full of interest and amusement; and there are many such in the building. The directors have, indeed, inherited a task greater than any of the labours undertaken by Hercules—the task of turning to a profitable account the insatiable craving of the public for novelties. The original projectors probably expected, and were justified in expecting, that the public would be satisfied with the wonder and beauty of the Palace and the site, and with the magnificent museum they had provided for their entertainment. The result has proved that they were mistaken: all the original and varied contents of the building soon came to be disregarded; and it now requires the presence of a Blondin, or a Christmas pantomime, to bring a crowd to Sydenham. Nothing can be more skilful or zealous than the management; but the strain upon it must be enormous. The original conception of the scheme was a magnificent error; the scale of the entertainments is beyond the natural requirement. The public appetite must be stimulated by exciting food when it turns from the wholesome fare already so liberally provided for its wants.

In one of the quiet and apparently unfrequented spaces of the building is located the little collection of pictures belonging to Mr. Bicknell. Although by no means a first-class selection, it contains some very interesting works, and it will repay examination better than the larger gallery, of which it may be said to be an offset. It contains two interesting works by Turner: the celebrated pictures of "Ivy Bridge, Devon," painted in his earlier manner, and the equally celebrated "Palestrina" of a later period. In these two pictures may be noted the development of his style, his simplicity, and his knowledge. There is also a very fine Stanfield—"The Mouth of the Humber," which exhibits this painter's ability in a class of subject in which he is still unrivalled. But the peculiar feature of the little exhibition consists in the small but very complete set of cabinet-pictures and sketches by David Roberts. Among them is the first picture he ever exhibited—"New Abbey, Dumfriesshire"—in which we can detect little promise of the cleverness by which his later works are eminently distinguished. It is tinted rather than coloured; and, in this respect alone, it may be said to prefigure the artist's subsequent practice.

Mr. Roberts has never shown any feeling for colour, nor even accurately represented the prevailing colour of any particular locality. Whether he paints a view of Edinburgh or of Jerusalem, we shall find in both that the local colour is the same. But, setting aside this special defect of his organization, he must be considered one of the most able painters of his time. His practice as a scene-painter has been of unquestionable service in his subsequent practice; he selects his subject from the best point of view with an unerring instinct; he treats it in a large and noble manner; and, although the mannerism of his figures detracts from the effect which, but for this, would be still more striking, his interiors of the great churches on the Continent are the best representations of them that have been produced in our time. In the present collection we have the opportunity of seeing his original sketches in oil of some of the finest church-interiors; and it is impossible to look at these without feeling that they are the productions of an uncommon painter. Among them are the interiors of St. Jacques at Antwerp, of St. Anne at Bruges, of St. Gomar, of St. Peter's at Rome, of Roslyn Chapel, of San Giovanni e Paolo at Venice—all of which will well repay examination. Besides these are several Syrian, Italian, Spanish, and French views of interest, which, with the interiors, supply, in a compact shape, ample materials to enable us to form a judgment of this painter's claims to recognition and distinction. In the collection will be found an admirable work by Muller, that short-lived but great artist, whose works, now rarely seen, rank among the best English pictures of the century. There are also some clever sketches by John Gilbert, the American painter Cropsey, Pyne, Sant, Etty, Frost, and others, and a fine French landscape by L. Français. We can heartily recommend any one who feels wearied by the extent of the Palace to retire to the retired nook in which this little collection is displayed, where he may find at once rest and healthy gratification.

## MUSIC.

### THE HEREFORD FESTIVAL.

OF old English cathedral towns few are pleasanter than the three whose choirs have now for a hundred and forty years met annually in fraternal festival; and the pleasantest, perhaps, of the three is this ancient capital of the Welsh Marches. Gloucester and Worcester have been invaded by commerce and manufactures—things very good in their way, but not helpful to the spending of a summer holiday. Hereford, though now a railway centre, and three times as busy as in the pre-locomotive period, still keeps, in the main, its old serenity of aspect, the calm physiognomy proper to ancient cathedral cities. But it can scarcely be called calm in festival-week. Once in every three years it holds high carnival of music—a six days'orgie of harmony and melody; and to this, in one way or other, the whole population surrenders itself. Morning and evening the old Roman minster and the new Doric Shire Hall resound with the crash of orchestra and chorus. Such of the citizens as go not themselves to the music go to see others go, or are busy entertaining their music-loving visitors. So entirely is Music the queen of the passing hour that those who do not care to join in the celebration feel constrained to flee away; they shut up their homes and depart, leaving their musical townfolk in undisturbed possession of the place. The Festival, in short, is the business of the week; and right well does it deserve its name; for the continued feast of music seems only to be broken by the banquetings of a mere matter-of-fact, but not disagreeable kind. The dignitaries of the Cathedral Close "use hospitality without grudging," and the same good apostolic rule is followed throughout the city. The surroundings being thus so pleasant, it will be understood that it is not easy to be minutely critical of the performances which are the occasion of the gathering. But there is a better reason than this, for it would be a waste of time to analyse the strictly musical elements of such a celebration. Small faults and small excellences of execution become quite insignificant by the side of the one main feature which impresses on these performances a character of their own. So far as the effect on the listener is concerned, the place of performance is the all-in-all. Whoever has not heard the grandest of our solemn music sung within the walls of a mediæval cathedral has yet to become acquainted with music in a new phase of beauty. "Beethoven in C" in an



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ordinary concert-room and "Beethoven in C" in the nave of one of these mighty old buildings are really two different things. The sound of the whole is a new sound to ears which have only heard the same notes under ordinary conditions. Take, for example, the performance of this morning. On entering the cathedral we find ourselves sitting under a pointed roof of some seventy or eighty feet high, supported by Norman arches, with their massive piers of old red sandstone—all solid and all splendidly resonant. On a platform under the great west window are posted the orchestra and chorus. The space between the west end and the choir screen (the Coventry screen of International-Exhibition fame) is filled by the audience. The rest of the building—its aisles, transepts, choir, down to the far-away east end of its lovely Lady-chapel—is all, or nearly all, clear of people. The effect of such an *entourage* upon the quality of the sound is immense. The first chord struck, the band fills the ear with a sensation of freshness and resonance which is delightful. At the same time the most delicate of the instrumental phrases—the softest lead, for instance, of the violins—are heard with perfect distinctness; and the tone of the chorus—a good one, no doubt here, but not above the average—is invested with a brightness not to be got out of ordinary voices in an ordinary place. Any one who has listened to the singing of the commonest choir from the end of a long Gothic nave—such as those, for example, of Winchester or Westminster—must have felt the tone-purifying effect of those glorious arcades of stone-work. At one of these cathedral festivals one enjoys the same effect applied to the grandest music yet imagined by man; and the result is overpowering. Great, too, is the charm of listening to a single voice of good quality pealing through these solemn buildings. The piping treble of a choir-boy is pleasant enough; but such notes as Mdle. Titiens's, in the hymn of Gabriel ("To the ethereal vaults resound"), heard above the crash of accompanying band and chorus, have a silvery ring worthy, we may almost say, of the archangel whom she personates. And presently we have Madame Sherrington in that bright description of the "winged tribes" which paints to the ear the soaring of eagles, the carolling of larks, and the cooing of turtle-doves. Madame Sherrington's voice is never other than liquid sweet; it scarcely needs to say that the notes which Haydn has represented as the voices of the air could hardly have been warbled with more perfect delicacy. None who have heard that other nightingale (Madame Lind) in the "Creation" will forget the enchantment which she threw into this song. The least—and the most—that we can say of Madame Sherrington is that her singing recalled that impression.

On the general performance of a work so familiar we need say no more than that it made an excellent and successful opening of the Festival. The band—made up, as it always is, of the leading stars of the chief London orchestras—was, of course, beyond criticism; and, of the other soloists, it is sufficient to say that Mr. Sims Reeves and Mr. Montem Smith shared the tenor music, and Mr. Santley and Mr. Weiss the bass. Expression of feeling on the part of the audience at the cathedral performances is (rightly enough in such a building) forbidden by ancient custom; but it was easy to see that Mr. Sims Reeves's superb delivery of his great song, "In native worth," and Mr. Santley's solo, "Now heaven in fullest glory shone," made the deepest impression on the listeners. The morning concluded with a good performance of Beethoven's "Mass in C," Mesdames Weiss and Dolby, Mr. Montem Smith, and Mr. Weiss taking the solo parts. Despite some little mishaps in the execution—mishaps which nothing but constant united rehearsals (such as are impossible at these festivals) could have averted—the effect of the whole work, the noblest piece of service-music extant, as it seems to us,\* was magnificent. We have before pointed out how the rendering of such works as these by our great London societies is ruined by the monstrous inequality between the numbers of soloists and the chorus. Here, with a chorus of moderate size—about thirty voices to each part, with an additional dozen or so of soprani—the adjustment of the relative forces is just what it should be. And the fitness of the music to the place is felt even more in a work like this than in the oratorios. We can hardly imagine the grandly tranquil opening of the "Kyrie," or the immense breadth of the "Credo," ever being made more impressive. The music is so large in

form, so redundant in power, that the little hesitations evident to a decidedly unfinished performance did not count for much in the way of deduction. The time ought soon to come when the "Mass in C" will draw its crowds as infallibly as the "Requiem" of Mozart. It was impossible to help feeling, while listening to it after even the masterpiece of Haydn, how far the genius of Beethoven overshadows the work of the older master, rich and beautiful as that is.

The secular concert at the Shire Hall on the evening of the first day was made up of an hour-long selection from "Oberon" and a miscellaneous second part, which included the "Jupiter" symphony of Mozart. The difficult and extremely delicate music of Weber's fairy opera wants a more specially trained chorus and a larger room than are here to be had. It wants also a conductor's beat of the most unflinching steadiness. In default of all of these the performance was but poor, though Mdle. Titiens and Mr. Sims Reeves awoke the enthusiasm of the audience by the magnificent performance of the great scena, "Ocean, thou mighty monster," and the war-song of Sir Huon. The "Jupiter," of course, "went" well enough, as it could not help doing with a band of which every member must know every bar by heart. The miscellaneous part was a selection of the light kind proper to the finish of a day of chiefly serious music, the artists of the morning contributing their share, with the addition of a trumpet solo from Mr. Harper. This gentleman's playing—which is no less beautiful than it is marvellous, and the marvel of it comes very near to the miraculous—was received with infinite applause.

The second day of the Festival was devoted to "Elijah," the attraction of which very nearly filled the audience portion of the cathedral. To describe the most prominent feature of this performance would be only to reiterate what we have said of the previous day's music. The Hereford chorus evidently know and enjoy Mendelssohn's masterpiece, and, knowing it, sang it with greater delicacy than shown in the Mass of the day before. Of some of the more choral parts of the work, especially the noble series of pieces in the second part which culminates in the sublime "Sanctus," we can fairly say that they were sung in a way to leave nothing to be desired. The exquisite close to "He, watching over Israel," to mention only one point, was done with a brightness and softness quite enchanting. Of Mdle. Titiens's leading of that grand setting of the cherubic hymn we have no need to speak. Like Madame Dolby's "O rest in the Lord," and Mr. Reeves's "Then shall the righteous," it is accepted by the whole world as the greatest singing of the greatest music. This and an evening concert, at which Mr. Benedict's "Cœur de Lion" was the chief feature, brought the second day of the Festival to a prosperous close. Of Thursday's sacred performance, which was miscellaneous, and included half of Spohr's "Fall of Babylon," necessities of time and space forbid us saying anything till next week. We shall be doubtless then able to record that the 141st meeting of the "Three Choirs" has been a financial success. The stewards, whose pockets are usually called upon to make up a deficit, have been this year of a "cheerful countenance;" and it is pretty certain that the Festival of 1864 will, for the first time at Hereford, give a balance, independent of the donations, to the Widow and Orphan Fund; and we shall then, no doubt, never hear again, as was whispered some few years back, that there is a chance of these time-honoured and delightful meetings being given up.

R. B. L.

## MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC NOTES.

THE Tonic Sol-Fa Association held its annual gathering at the Crystal Palace on Wednesday last, the choir consisting of 5000 voices, including 1000 tenors and basses. It was attended by 24,789 visitors.

THE Birmingham Festival begins on Tuesday next. Applications for tickets are reported to have been so numerous as to leave no doubt of the success of the meeting quite equalling that of previous years.

THE new issue of M. Fétis's "Biographie des Musiciens" is progressing. The seventh volume has just made its appearance.

FLOROW's opera "Indra" has been played with success at the Imperial Theatre in Vienna.

"We [the Orchestra] regret to announce the death, on Wednesday evening, of a very promising young musician, Mr. Walstein, student of the Royal Academy of Music. He was attacked by diphtheria some ten days before, under which he eventually sank, although, up to the last day or

two, strong hopes had been entertained of his recovery. Mr. Walstein was a Yorkshireman, and was only twenty-four years of age. He was one of the most successful scholars of the Academy—a medallist—and showed very considerable aptitude for composition. Our readers will, no doubt, recollect a clever *caprice* of his, played (if we remember right) at the Musical Society's Concerts last season. It was in contemplation, we are informed, to appoint Mr. Walstein to a sub-professorship in the Royal Academy. His premature death will be a source of regret to many friends, both in and beyond the profession."

THE organ performances held (weekly, we believe, up to this time) in the great Hall of Leeds are to be in future reduced in number one half, the organist's salary being reduced one half at the same time. This is a change decidedly in the *wrong* direction. A place so wealthy as Leeds—and in the midst of music-loving Yorkshire, too—ought not to stint the use of any help towards civilizing and enlightening the people.

A MDLLE. GENETIER has been engaged as soprano to take leading parts at the Opéra Comique in Paris.

SIGNOR TAMBERLIK has appeared with success at the Madrid opera in the character of *Polinto* in Donizetti's "Martiri."

AT the *fête* given on Saturday by the musical artists of Paris to Rossini, and held in his own villa and gardens, several actors assisted, among whom were Mdle. Damain and M. Coquelin, the young and already celebrated comedian of the Théâtre Français, who recited "Le Wagon" of M. Vercousin.

THE *Indépendance Belge* gives a complete list of the musical and theatrical celebrities who have obtained the recent decorations, appending to most of the names the dates of birth and the principal works of their possessors. The list is as follows:—*Grand Officier*—J. Rossini, born 29th February, 1792, author of "Il Barbiere," &c., &c. *Officiers*—H. Berlioz, born 11th December, 1803, author of "Benvenuto Cellini," "Les Troyens," &c.—X. Saintine, 10th July, 1797, "Une Maîtresse de Louis XIII.," "L'Homme Blasé;"—E. Legouvé, 15th February 1807, "Adrienne Lecouvreur," "Bataille de Dames." *Chevaliers*—Paul Féval, 27th September, 1817, "Le Fils du Diable," "Le Bossu;"—Lambert Thiboust, 1826, "Les Filles de Marbre," "Les Diables Roses;"—Gabrielle, "La Péri, l'Etoile de Messine;"—H. Crémieux, 1831, "Orphée aux Enfers;"—B. Autier, 1787, "L'Auberge des Adrets," "Robert Macaire;"—Samson, 1792, "La Belle-Mère et le Gendre;"—L. Halévy, 1833, part author of "Orphée aux Enfers," and other works.—These names—with those of M. Narin, whose works are not specified, and M. Charles de la Rounat, who was decorated in his capacity of theatrical director—are sufficient to show that the interests of the theatrical profession are well cared for by the present Government of France.

M. ALEXANDRE DUMAS, who has been long silent, has brought out a dramatized version of his romance, "Les Mohicans de Paris." It has been produced at the Théâtre des Arts-et-Métiers, formerly La Gaité, the principal parts being assigned to Perrin, Dumaine, and Madame Clarence. Neither characters nor situations are said to be strikingly original.

M. FERVILLE, the late actor at the Gymnase theatre, who died last week at the age of eighty-four years, had attained a great reputation for his performances of the fire-eating colonels, so common in the comedies of Scribe. His real name was Vaucorbeil, and he has left a son who has acquired some reputation as a musical composer.

THE well-known Palais-Royal vaudeville "Ma Nièce et mon Ours," which has been adapted for the English stage, is now being played successfully at the Théâtre des Galeries at Brussels.

THE Théâtre Royal de la Monnaie at Brussels reopens on the first of this month.

THE slack season at the theatres is drawing to a close. Drury Lane, the Haymarket, the St. James's, the Strand, and the New Royalty will all re-open during the present month, the Lyceum alone deferring the commencement of its new season until October. The Surrey, after undergoing important alterations and enlargements, opens its doors this evening. The season at the Olympic will shortly terminate, and with it will cease the management which has done so much to render its performances popular.

## MUSIC FOR NEXT WEEK.

SEPTEMBER 5th to 10th.

Mr. Mellon's Promenade Concerts, Covent Garden Opera-house.

\* Not forgetting—but plainly still as not subject to the comparison—the "Missa Solennis" and the "Requiem" of Mozart.



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TRAITURE.—The CASKET or CRYSTAL CUBE MINIATURES and LOCKETS (presenting a solid life-like bust in an enclosed cube of crystal, patented for Great Britain, France, Belgium, and the United States. An abstract of the mode of obtaining this singularly beautiful result, read at the late meeting of the British Association by the inventor, Henry Swan, may be had, post free, together with terms of portraiture, on application to T. E. Golding, Secretary to the Casket Portrait Company, 40, Charing Cross, Cartes de Visite and Vignettes on the usual terms.

From the Times, Sept. 3, 1863.

"THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.—In the Mathematical Section yesterday, a large number of papers were read, but only one was of any general interest. It was by Mr. H. Swan, and gave an account of a new invention in portraiture-taking. By a peculiar arrangement of two rectangular prisms, the appearance of a perfectly solid figure is given to a picture and portraits which were unsatisfactory on a flat surface, have so much expression thrown into them by this invention, as to become quite pleasing and truthful."

From the Standard, Sept. 29, 1863.

"The casket portrait is a still further and more effective development of the photographic process than has yet been discovered—indeed, as far as truly realistic portraiture is desired, this method, which has been discovered by Mr. Swan, must meet the requirements of the most exacting in that style of individual representation. In that entirely new and original adaptation of optical illusion to the ordinary portraits taken by the photographer, the head and features of the sitter have all the distinctness and projection of a bust in marble, with the advantage of preserving the natural tints of the countenance in the most life-like manner."

From the Illustrated London News, Oct. 3, 1863.

"A solid image of the sitter's head is seen, looking with startling reality from the centre of a small cube of crystal, every feature standing out in as perfect relief as though chiselled by the hands of fairy sculptors. \* \* \* Most people are fond of looking in the glass, but this portable and indestructible spectrum, reflecting no mere fleeting image, but containing the actual, palpable form of humanity, is certainly a most startling novelty. Natural science is daily explaining illusions which formerly gained the credit of being supernatural. This is an age less given to denying the existence of phenomena than to demonstrate the why and the wherefore of their existence. How would it be, after all, the appearance in Zerkel's magic crystal, at which we have all been laughing so much lately, had some photographic foundation, and the 'man in armour,' and 'lady in the pink dress,' were only 'casket or crystal cube miniatures?'"

From the Intellectual Observer for November, 1863.

The effect of the new process is to exhibit the subject of the portraiture with life-like verisimilitude, and in natural relief. You take up a small case, and look through what appears to be a little window, and there stands or sits before you, in a pleasantly-lighted chamber, a marvellous effigy of a lady or gentleman, as the case may be. The projection of the nose, the moulding of the lips, and all the gradations of contour, are as distinct as if an able sculptor had exercised his skill; but the hair and the flesh are of their proper tint, and the whole thing has a singularly vital and comfortable look. Indeed, were it not for the reduction in size, it would be difficult to avoid the belief that an actual man or woman, in ordinary dress, and with characteristic expression, was presented to your eye. In addition to portraits destined for morocco cases, and of ordinary miniature sizes, much smaller ones are taken and mounted in exceedingly pretty little caskets of fine gold. These form as elegant little shrines as any lover could wish to receive the effigy of his mistress, and far surpass any other mode yet devised of connecting portraiture with ornamental jewellery."

From the London Review, August 29, 1863.

"Suitable for presents, or for mementos of those closer friends or relatives of whom we might wish to have some special token of remembrance. They are set in a casket or case of any size, from that of a chain-link ornament to three or four inches in height. On looking into the casket, a life-like bust is seen."

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# THE READER.

3 SEPTEMBER, 1864.

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